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There is no commonplace more frequently and easily repeated than that which says, that the Republic can only stand on a foundation of universal education.

But, while this is everywhere said, it is to be noticed that there is still only a very vague idea as to what is meant by universal education.

Now it must be very seriously doubted whether we make a better citizen by a process so simple and so mechanical as that which teaches him only how to read and how to write, or which also adds the news that three times three is nine, or that eight times nine is seventy-two.

The stout enemies of the education of what they would call the "rank and file" always said, that by such training you only put weapons into the hands of those whom you taught. They said, and those who are left of them still say, that these weapons might be used for evil as well as good, and they argued that the State was most secure which kept such weapons in the hands of certain "ruling classes," among whom, of course, those who argued thus were to be found.

The language displayed in this argument, which speaks of weapons for attack, may be studied in its literal sense;

for it gives what is a fair distinction, as it is a fundamental one, between the two methods of government.

A government of the people, by the people, is not afraid to put weapons into the hands of every man. Perhaps it has not been enough observed that pure republics do this on system and principle. Thus the American states used to have direct statutes, which compelled every man to have in his house a gun, a pouch of powder, or a cartridge box, and so many flints and bullets. The gun must be in good order, and ready to be inspected at fit seasons.

Compare such statutes with the regulations by which England, for instance, forbade the men of certain counties in Ireland to have in the house any fire-arm without a license. In the comparison you have an excellent illustration of the difference between a fine republic and a government by an aristocracy or by one man.

The republic may need to call every man to fight against some common enemy. It means to have him ready with his arms.

The monarch or the aristocracy, on the other hand, is afraid of the subject if he be armed. It becomes the part of safety, then, to disarm him.

For exactly the same reason, it is an advantage for a monarch or an aristocracy to keep the great body of the people ruled so far in ignorance that they may not use the "weapons" of intelligence in insurrection against such self-appointed masters.

It will be also, on theory, to the advantage of governments thus conducted to limit very surely the range of popular or universal education. And those dainty theorists who wish to limit popular education to what they call "the three R's," will always be found to belong to one or other of the different oligarchies, which suppose that a clerical class, or a military class, or a commercial class, or a class of rich men, or a class in which rest an hereditary right, shall do the governing for the rest of the people.

The great lesson to be enforced in America is that we are not to be governed by any one, two, or three of such classes. We are not to be governed by a class of priests, or of soldiers, or of rich men, or of learned men, or of working-men, or of day-laborers. America is to be governed by the people of America.

On a great occasion, in April, 1861, the people of America showed that it still understood this. A class of Southern slave-holders, well educated, of experience in government, and drunk with success, undertook to decide the destiny of the United States. And the people of the United States said "No. We, the People, have ordained our Constitution. We, the People, will maintain it."

Abraham Lincoln said in his first regular message to Congress, that in the army of the people which then sprung into being, there were single regiments which could have supplied every man who would be needed in the proper administration of the national government. In that statement of his there was not the least exaggeration. In Europe it was sometimes ridiculed as blatherskite. In America it passed perfectly unnoticed, because everybody knew it was true. The story is not forgotten, perhaps, of the incident on the Potomac, when Private Howe called upon his colonel and said that some of the men wanted their pay badly; that he knew, as the colonel did, that the paymaster could not come round for some weeks or months, and that he should like to give his own check for the men's pay, relying on the government to repay him at its convenience. It is hard to make people "on the other side" believe that story; and hard to make them understand that a cabinet, as fit for business as the average, could have been picked out of one of those regiments of volunteers.

All the same, it was so. Now it is very easy to see that such a regiment is worth much more for all purposes which the country has in hand than any regiment of a thousand men, picked up in the slums, "with no stake in the

country," with no knowledge of the past, and no dream of a better future.

That analogy may be carried directly into the matter of public education. The republic will succeed,—in proportion as it relies on the intelligence and training of all its citizens. It will fail in proportion as it has to rely on an "educated class," for its men of administration or affairs. It is not enough for the country to teach its voters how to read and write, how to add and subtract. It wants more than voters; it wants intelligent voters. It wants in administration more than machines. It wants intelligent officers.

Within the last generation we have taken more intelligent steps in this direction than we did at the beginning of the century. To the liberal arts,—to the higher education, the states then relied on arrangements which provided for a large educated class, but not for the whole people. The statesmen understood the necessity, but the public did not fully provide. John Adams said squarely, that Massachusetts meant that every citizen should have a liberal education. But though Massachusetts offered this to almost everyone—it cannot be said that Massachusetts provided it. Massachusetts and all the other states provided for the instruction of children. They did not provide for the higher education of men and women.

The lecture system of the early days of Emerson and Farrar, and the Useful Knowledge Societies, and the Mechanics' Institutes led the way for such education as early as 1830. Lord Brougham said, "The march of intellect had begun," and it had. That admirable system of courses of real instruction broke down after a generation, with the rivalry of the almost ridiculous "Star system," of the past thirty years, when audiences have been "entertained" and not instructed, and lecturers who have not taught, have performed.

The great Chautauqua system, now nearly twenty years old, has made the largest and best step in advance. It is a system of the liberal education of men and women. Probably it counted, directly or indirectly, one hundred thousand

readers in its various circles in the last year. There is no reason why it should not count millions; there are ten million families in the United States. The public school system is open to all their children till they are sixteen years old. It ought so to train those children that after that age they may be able at once to take up the well arranged courses of Chautauqua.

Side by side with this is the Roman Catholic courses—also adjusted for a period of four years, providing for systematic liberal education.

What is called University Extension is a well-arranged system which will restore what our fathers called "Courses of Lectures." A competent body of lecturers, who have something to teach, are banded together and make arrangements with a certain system, of carrying their instructions to villages and towns which can appreciate them.

As matters go today, a "Course of Lectures" means that some enterprising young man in a village wants to raise some money. The neighbors like him and want to help him. They will take tickets if he "gets up a good course." He consults with a lecture bureau and the result is a course, consisting of an oration on the Poetry of Shopkeeping and one on the Shopkeeping of Poetry, of a vocal concert, and of a stereoptic lecture, with more or less of such diversions as the zeal of the neighbors and their ignorance will stand.

This is abject nonsense so far as the higher or liberal education goes. In place of this the University Extension people send an agent to the town who offers a course on some one important subject, in history, in natural science, in literature or in social economy. The rates for course tickets are singularly low. The truth is, as always, the syndicate can work more cheaply than competing individuals. When the course comes the attendants find an experienced teacher. Behind him is the apparatus of books of reference and of study, which the Central Board has devised. It proves, therefore that in each audience there are many intelligent hearers, eager to carry forward so sensible an arrangement.

In such courses, last winter, the Philadelphia Extension met sixty thousand persons. Of these sixty thousand, more than five hundred met for the month of July in the University of Pennsylvania for more systematic study of the various subjects taken in hand. It was the historical class of this company which furnished the "Historical Pilgrimage," which has attracted so much attention.

THE REMOVAL OF CHILDREN FROM ALMS- HOUSES.*

The history of the poorhouse has been a disgraceful chapter in the annals of every state, and every country. Under whatever name the institution has been known,—Workhouse in England, Almshouse in Massachusetts, County Home in Pennsylvania, Infirmary in Ohio,—its nature has been the same. Everywhere it has been the abomination of desolation. Everywhere men have instinctively spoken of "going to the poorhouse" as the last and bitterest of earthly misfortunes. If the vital statistics of poorhouses could be accurately kept, the percentage of deaths from a broken heart would be surprising.

The reasons for this state of things are easily seen. The poorhouse became the dumping ground for the wreckage and waste of human society; it was the only open door to all those who were unable to compete successfully in the struggle for a livelihood by reason of mental or physical infirmity, and at the same time had no relatives or friends with sufficient heart and means to give them shelter; in other words, of all those who from any cause were economically "unfit" and socially isolated.

* A paper read at the Twenty-first National Conference of Charities and Correction, Nashville, Tenn., May 27th, 1894, by Homer Folks, Chairman of Section on Child-Saving Work, Secretary of the State Charities Aid Association of New York.

The classes which inevitably took their way over the hills to the poorhouse, were as varied as the causes which produce extreme poverty. Among them were the mentally incompetent, including the insane, epileptics, the feeble-minded and idiotic; the physically disabled, including those whom old age finds without friends or provision for a rainy day, the destitute sick, the blind, deaf-mutes, and the crippled and deformed. There also passed through its doors a melancholy procession of destitute children and unwedded mothers.

Certainly such a motley gathering of incapables could lead to no good result. Each individual of each of these classes needs an extra amount of personal care and expert treatment. It was because of this fact that they were brought to the poorhouse. Their friends or relatives found them burdensome, and were unable or unwilling to make the personal sacrifice of time and service which the occasion called for. They came to the poorhouse, not to receive better care, more attention, more intelligent treatment, but to take care of each other; the idiotic to keep guard over the insane, the blind to lead the halt, feeble-minded adults to train children. Naturally it was impossible for any poorhouse with this varied population to be a fit place for any human being to live in.

But added to the natural difficulties were others. The poorhouse has been too often, though not always, the cheapest of the spoils of politics for plunder only. Each party in successive control has felt that its political future depended upon persuading the people that the poorhouse had been managed extravagantly by its predecessor and economically by itself. To accomplish this end, the supply of food has often been reduced to the lowest possible point and purchased at the lowest price with little regard to quality; repairs to buildings have been postponed indefinitely; nurses and attendants have been dispensed with. This persistent, hard-hearted demand for economy which seems to be well-nigh universal, does not represent, in

my opinion, the real feeling of the people of any community of the United States. It is simply the false cry of the politician seeking "an issue." I am optimistic enough to believe that in every community of the United States, a majority of the voters, to say nothing of the women, would if the matter were fairly presented, decide every question affecting poorhouse management, on the grounds of humanity, rather than economy.

To add to the difficulties, the poorhouse has frequently been located in the most inaccessible part of the county. "Over the hills" is too often a correct description of the journey. I recall a typical case in Pennsylvania. Parallel railroads traversed opposite sides of the county. Rival cities were located on these roads. To avoid injury to the local pride of one city by locating a public institution near the other, and to assist in securing a fair distribution of patronage, the poorhouse was located half-way between. It was ten miles from the nearer railway station and eleven from the other. At the time of my visit there were twenty children roaming through this poorhouse. The nearest city, ten miles away, was one of the finest of country towns. Its people were well-to-do, cultured, kind, and public-spirited. They took pride in showing their well-built city to visitors, and in pointing out their magnificent school building and their numerous and beautiful churches. But the enthusiastic citizens, who took a deep interest in the temporal as well as the spiritual wants of the heathen by the Congo and the Ganges, had overlooked those who were sitting in darkness by the Susquehanna. They did not realize that in the poorhouse twenty American children were becoming worse than heathen. "It is so far away," they said. No one doubts that the American people are humane at heart. We do not mean to be cruel, but I wonder if we are not cruelly thoughtless.

"Evil is wrought by want of thought
As well as want of heart."

The erection of county poorhouses was first authorized in the state of New York in 1824. In 1856, thirty-eight years ago, and thirty-two years after the first poorhouses were built, the Senate of the state of New York appointed a "Select Committee" to investigate all the charitable institutions of the state. They gave five months to their work, and in their report concerning the poor-houses, summed up their conclusions thus :

"As receptacles for adult paupers the committee do not hesitate to record their deliberate opinion that the great mass of the poorhouses that they have inspected, are most disgraceful memorials of the public charity. Common domestic animals are usually more humanely provided for than the paupers in these institutions. The evidence taken by the committee exhibits such a record, of filth, nakedness, licentiousness, general bad morals, and disregard of religion and the most common religious observances as well as of gross neglect of the most ordinary comforts and decencies of life as, if published in detail, would disgrace the state and shock humanity." Yet I doubt whether New York were one whit worse than any other state in the Union.

The committee reported farther: "It is much to be regretted that our citizens generally manifest so little interest in the condition even of the poorhouses in their immediate neighborhood, and the committee are quite convinced that this apparent indifference on the part of the citizens, may be attributed to a great degree to the miserable state to which these houses have fallen." It is greatly to be feared that the citizens of the United States, generally, still deserve the reproach which thirty-eight years ago this committee felt it their duty to offer to the citizens of the state of New York.

Poorhouse reform has of necessity worked in the line of segregating these various elements of the poorhouse population, and in securing for each class that special care, expert treatment, and favorable conditions which their malady requires. The blind have been removed to schools where

they receive an education which enables many of them to take their places among the wage-earners of the community. The insane have been removed to State Hospitals where they receive expert medical treatment, are allowed the largest possible degree of liberty, and are regarded simply as sick people to be cured. Feeble-minded children have in most of the states been removed to training schools where they can be made happy and comfortable, receive the training and education of which they are individually capable, and be prevented from perpetuating their kind. The deformed and crippled have been sent to hospitals for the treatment and cure, if possible, of their special deformities. Two states, Ohio and New York, have recently established separate institutions for the employment and treatment of epileptics, an entirely distinct class of unfortunates who have been crowded into the poorhouses greatly to their own injury, simply because there was no other place to which they could go.

Most important of all has been the removal of children from the demoralizing influences of poorhouse associations. It is a simple statement of fact that the majority of children who grew to adolescence in poorhouses, became paupers or criminals. How could it have been otherwise? Do we realize even yet to how great an extent every human being is the natural product of his surroundings; that all we know we have been taught; that the good start we got in life was due to the fact that we had loving fathers and mothers who poured out their lives into our own and little by little and with infinite pains, taught us to walk, to talk, to eat, to read, to work, to live. These things come not by intuition, but by example and precept. Think then for a moment of the absence of any inspiring, humanizing, developing influences in the poorhouse; of the distorted and debased human lives, after which the poorhouse child patterned; of the worn-out or faulty material, rejected by society, out of which he constructed his life; of the vices more contagious than disease, in the midst of which he lived by day and night. There

could be but one product. Protracted residence in a poor-house produced everywhere a certain type of child—lazy, profane, cunning, immoral, absolutely untruthful, quarrelsome, bold. Whether these characteristics became permanent depended upon how long the forces that produced them were in action.

It is not necessary at this time to describe all the consequences of compelling children to live in a pauper atmosphere with feeble-minded adults as play-mates and nurses, and for teachers, physical and moral wrecks who had squandered their substance in riotous living. For that wretched system no one now stands as apologist. We all agree that it was and is and always must be bad, unqualifiedly bad.

The history of the movement to exclude children from almshouses may perhaps be said to begin in the United States with the report of this special committee of 1856, which said, "The most important point in the whole subject confided to the committee is that which concerns the care and education of children of paupers. The committee are forced to say that it is a great public reproach that they should be permitted to remain in the poorhouses as they are now mismanaged. They are for the young the worst possible nurseries." Not much was accomplished, however, during the next ten years, and when the State Board of Charities was established in 1867 it found some 2300 children in poorhouses in the state of New York. Efforts were made to induce the Boards of Supervisors of the various counties to make other provision for the children, either by placing them in families or by sending them to asylums for children. Through the influence of the members of the State Board of Charities and other public-spirited citizens, a very considerable number of the counties of the state removed some or all of the children from the poorhouses. Nearly another ten years had passed, however, before the practice of sending children to poor-houses was definitely forbidden by law. In 1875, through the efforts of the Hon. William P. Letchworth of the State Board of Charities, supported by the State Charities Aid

Association, a statute was secured forbidding the retention of children over three years of age in any of the almshouses or poorhouses of the state. Meanwhile, similar agitations had been carried on in other states. The Legislature of Michigan, appointed in 1869 an investigating committee to visit county jails and poorhouses, and as the outcome of the work of this committee, established in 1871, its now noted State School for Dependent Children. A law forbidding the sending of children over five and under sixteen years of age to poorhouses, was passed in Wisconsin in 1876. Similar legislation was secured in Massachusetts in 1879. In Indiana and Michigan in 1881; in Ohio and Pennsylvania in 1883; Minnesota and Rhode Island established State Schools for dependent children in 1885; Kansas in 1887. An effort to secure such a law in Illinois in 1893 was unsuccessful, but will be renewed in 1895.

Of these laws, that of New York in its present amended form, is perhaps the most radical, making it unlawful to send any child, between the ages of two and sixteen years, to any poorhouse or almshouse. Pennsylvania exempts feeble-minded and other defective children. It does not forbid the sending of children to poorhouses, but commands their removal within sixty days. Massachusetts allows children to remain until four years of age, and if they have mothers in the poor-house able to care for them, until eight years of age. Only within the past year has this law been made to apply to the town almshouses of which there are a large number in the state. In Wisconsin, children under six years of age are exempted from the law as are also defective children.

In regard to such legislation the consensus of opinion among those familiar with the subject, seems to be, I think, that the more radical is the better; that in fact any statute which does not absolutely prohibit the residence of children of sound mind and body, and past two years of age in any almshouse, is seriously defective.

In spite of the unanimity of opinion as to the beneficial effects of such a law and the possibility of its easy en-

forcement, statutes forbidding the residence of children in poorhouses have been passed in only a few states. The census of 1890 tells us that there are still 4,987 children, between two and sixteen years of age, inclusive, in poorhouses in the United States. No doubt a proportion of these are defective children, who could not ordinarily be placed in families or asylums for normal children, but the fact seems to be indisputable that several thousand children, practically sound in mind and body, still remain in our poorhouses.

I had gained the impression from some source that a large proportion of these children were in the Southern states, and when I began to prepare for this meeting, I supposed that it would probably be our duty to "gently but firmly" remind our friends of the South that this was not creditable. A study of the census figures, however, shows that although children form a larger proportion of the almshouse population in the South than in the North, those states having the largest number of children in poorhouses in proportion to the population of the state, are located without reference to Mason and Dixon's line. The states which are shown by census bulletin, No. 154, to have the largest number of children, between two and sixteen years of age, in almshouses in proportion to their total population are as follows: New Hampshire, 46 children in almshouses to every one hundred thousand of the general population; Vermont, 27; West Virginia, 25; New Jersey, 23; Virginia, 19; Maine, 18; Ohio, 17; Rhode Island, 16; Massachusetts, 15; Indiana, 15; Kentucky, 14; Montana, 12; North Carolina, 10; Pennsylvania, 8; Illinois, 8; Tennessee, 8; Delaware, 7; Maryland, 6; Connecticut, 6; Michigan, 6; Missouri, 5; Kansas, 5; Georgia, 4. All other states and territories are reported to have less than four children in almshouses per one hundred thousand population.

A paper on this subject would be inexcusably incomplete which did not make some mention of the different methods adopted in the various states for the care of de-

pendent children who formerly would have been sent to the poorhouse. While no two states have adopted systems exactly alike, we may, disregarding certain minor differences, divide the various methods into four groups, and as each method has been in operation for some years, the time may have arrived for forming some sort of a comparison and noting the advantages claimed for, and objections urged against each.

The four classes of methods are :

1. The private asylum system, used in New York and California.

2. The county system used in Ohio, Connecticut, and to some extent in Indiana.

It should be said that authorities in these states question the accuracy of the census returns if they are to be understood as including only children living in actual contact with adult paupers.

3. The state system used in Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Rhode Island and Kansas.

4. The boarding system used in Pennsylvania and in Massachusetts, in the latter state in connection with a state institution.

I. The private asylum system. The law of New York provides that children who are public charges shall be provided for "in families, orphan asylums, hospitals, or other appropriate institutions." As a matter of fact, although the county and town officials place a few children in families, the great majority are sent to orphan asylums and kindred institutions. Reports from the superintendents of the poor of forty of the sixty counties of the state, show sixty-eight children placed by them in families in 1892, while during the same year 17,428 children were admitted to orphan asylums and institutions of like nature. These institutions are under the control of private, self-perpetuating corporations composed of benevolent and public-spirited citizens. The details of internal management are usually under the direction of an associate board composed of women. Most

of these asylums existed prior to the passage of the "Children's Law" of 1875, and a few have been established since that time for the express purpose of caring for this class of children. All these institutions are subject to the visitation and inspection of the State Board of Charities, to which they make an annual report concerning receipts and expenditures and admission and discharge of children. The counties pay a stated amount per week for the support of each child, the amount being fixed by the Board of Supervisors, and being usually somewhat less than the actual cost of the support of the child. The deficit is covered by voluntary contributions by the friends of the institutions. In New York city, however, the allowance is sufficient in most cases to cover the entire cost of maintenance, and in 1892 to have in nine cases a surplus amounting in all to \$69,498. Except in Erie County, which employs two agents for placing-out, the work of removing the children from the asylum to families is left usually, and in New York city entirely, to the managers of the institutions.

The advantages claimed for the system as a whole are :

- a. The absolute removal of the whole administration from the influences of partisan politics and the devastations of the spoils system.
- b. The enlistment in each community of the active interest of a considerable number of public-spirited and benevolent citizens, who, being managers of the institution or otherwise connected therewith, visit the institution with more or less regularity, give careful attention to the details of administration, and in many cases take an active interest in the welfare of the individual children.
- c. The removal of the dependent children of the state from all connection with paupers and pauper administration, thus effectually saving them from the taint and stigma of pauperism.

It is urged against the system :

- a. That it greatly increases the number of children to be cared for by removing the stigma which attaches to admis-

sion to a poorhouse, and by securing to each child the religious training which its parents prefer and the natural unwillingness of parents to part with their children is in a large degree removed. The result being that many children are thrown upon the public bounty who would never be permitted by their parents to enter a poorhouse.

To a less extent this phase of the difficulty is, however, met in every attempt to remove children from poorhouses, and in every state it is a serious problem, to give the children proper care without subjecting hard pressed parents to improper temptations to give up their responsibilities.

b. By paying a *per capita* allowance for the children and allowing them to remain in the institutions at the will of the managers, the incentives to keep the number in the institutions small, either by a vigorous sifting of applications for admission or by placing the children in families as rapidly as possible, are largely removed. This objection has special force when the amount paid by the county covers the entire cost, or nearly the entire cost of the maintenance of the children.

The present unfortunate state of affairs in New York city and some other large cities of the state, is not due altogether to the law concerning the removal of children from almshouses. The Penal Code enacted in 1881 authorizes police magistrates to commit destitute children to charitable institutions, the expense of their support to be borne by the city, and in New York city at least, this is the favorite method of commitment. But however it came about, the situation certainly is serious when one child of every hundred in the whole state, and in New York city one child of every thirty-five is being reared under the unnatural influences of institution life, prolonged in most cases for a period of several years. Institutions for the care of dependent and neglected children have attained in New York city such a luxuriant growth as has never before been seen in America, and I think not in the whole world. An institution con-

taining only two or three hundred children seems to be of very moderate size when compared with our institutions containing five hundred children, a thousand, fifteen hundred, eighteen hundred, two thousand, twenty-five hundred.

Under these circumstances it is interesting to recall the prediction of Miss Florence Davenport Hill in "The Children of the State," page 222. After a graphic description of the evils of institutional life she says, "The beginning of the end, however, of such institutions was sighted, when in April, 1875," an act was obtained from the New York legislature forbidding the commitment of children to poorhouses. In view of our later experience in large cities it would seem that that was only the beginning of the beginning, and that the end is not yet in sight.

California, under a somewhat similar system, supports one child of every hundred in the state in a private charitable institution.

II. The County System of Ohio, Connecticut and Indiana, aims to provide in each county a temporary home for children supported by public taxation and under the control of public officials. It is claimed for this system that the institutions may be kept small, thus reducing the evils of institutionizing to a minimum and that local influences and the interest of benevolent people may be enlisted to nearly the same extent as in the private asylum system.

It is urged against this system that the large number of these homes, one in each county or one in every two or three counties, tends to increase the number of children to be cared for. It is the same Banquo's ghost which appears in every field of charitable work. The provision for assistance seems to create, or at least suggests the need of help; the supply tends to increase the demand. The tendency to enlarge the institutions is also fostered by a pride more enthusiastic than intelligent. It must be said that the facts seem to give force to this objection. Ohio and Connecticut, while supporting fewer children in proportion to their population than New York and California, do provide for a con-

siderably larger number than those states which have a single institution. Ohio supports one child to seventeen hundred of its population. Michigan, an adjoining state, supports one child to ten thousand population; Minnesota, one child to nine thousand; Wisconsin, one child to eight thousand. Connecticut, with its Temporary Home in each county, supports one child to eight hundred of the population. The adjoining state, Rhode Island, with a single institution, supports one child to three thousand population. It is a fact also, that two of the Temporary Homes of Connecticut are larger than the School for Dependent Children for the whole state of Michigan, or Minnesota, or Wisconsin; or Rhode Island.

III. By the state system is meant the establishment of a single institution in the state, supported by state taxation and under the immediate control of the state authorities, all public money being withheld from private institutions. An active placing-out system is made a part of the plan.

The advantages claimed for this plan are :

a. By placing the children under the guardianship of the state and by removing them from the neighborhood in which they have lived, safeguards are provided against the undue unloading of children upon public support.

b. By making an active placing-out agency an integral part of the system, the duration of institutional life is made very brief, and children are soon restored to the more natural life of the family and the community. As a result of these two features, the number of children to be cared for at any given time at public expense is small, and the burden of taxation is never excessive.

It is urged against the state system :

a. That it is subject to the influences of partisan politics and the uncertainties of the spoils system; that trustees, superintendents, officers, and teachers, are apt to be selected, not because of fitness for their positions, but because of political services or influence; that with every change of the political majority, the whole body of officials, as well as the

Board of Control, will very likely be removed and new and inexperienced persons of doubtful qualifications placed in charge; and that the plan does not enlist the co-operation and support of those citizens of the community who do not participate actively in politics.

The experience of these institutions furnishes arguments for and against this position. When one political party has been in the ascendancy for a term of years, men of excellent qualities of mind and heart have been secured and retained as trustees and officers. In some cases when the political majority has shifted, no serious changes have been made in the official staff, but in other cases under like circumstances, the whole body of officials, together with the Board of Control, have been unceremoniously dismissed.

b. That a placing-out system is exposed to dangers as grave as those attending the asylum system. If children are scattered broadcast over the state, or if their interests are not guarded by an efficient supervision, the results will be disastrous. It is certainly true that some of these state institutions have not at all times realized their ideal in this direction. The same danger, however, attends placing-out from a county home or from a private asylum, and the question resolves itself into this: can the state secure as efficient and reliable agents as private charity?

c. It is said, too, that conditions in different states differ; that a system which works well in Michigan and Rhode Island, would not necessarily work well in New York or Ohio or California.

IV. The boarding system of Pennsylvania differs radically from these we have described in that no institution is used. When the law was passed requiring the removal of children from almshouses the county authorities were left free to make such other provision for the children as they desired. Most of the counties have accepted the co-operation of a private organization, The Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania. Under their plan all children are sent direct-

ly to families, who are paid a reasonable sum for their care and maintenance. From these boarding homes they may be transferred to free homes, as in other states they are transferred from a central institution to free homes, or, as often happens, they are kept permanently and without payment for board after a few months or a year or two by the family which received them as boarders.

The advantages claimed for the plan are :

a. That the children are at all times subject only to the natural influences of family life.

b. That very many children who could not be placed in families without payment for board because they are not attractive or are subject to some slight physical weakness or mental peculiarity or moral perversity, may find permanent homes in the community by being first boarded in families until their faults are corrected.

c. That safeguards are provided against the unloading of children upon the public in the fact that parents do not desire to see their children sent to *other* families, either temporarily or permanently.

The following objections are offered :

a. That the payment for children in families will reduce the demand for children in families without payment for board. It is claimed, however, by those who are familiar with the boarding system in Pennsylvania and Massachusetts that it assists rather than retards the finding of free homes.

b. That there is no assurance of the continuity of the system, since it all depends upon voluntary co-operation between public officials and a private society, either of whom may at any time adopt some other plan.

The Massachusetts system is in its general features a combination of the Pennsylvania boarding system and the state system of Michigan. There is a central state institution, the State Primary School, from which children are placed out in families, in free homes, if approved free homes can be secured, in boarding homes if free homes are not avail-

able. Foundlings and other infants are boarded in families from which many of them are adopted. Until recently children were not boarded after they had reached the age of ten years, but special cases may now be boarded for some time longer. The State Primary School is governed by a Board of Trustees, the placing in families and the boarding system are under the charge of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity. This state system is, however, only for the care of "the children of the state." The cities and towns seem to have no relation to the state system and to make whatever provision for their children they may desire. Nor does there seem to be any supervision of their work by a central authority.

This combination of the boarding system with the Central State Institution and the placing in families without payment, seems to me to be worthy of special notice. It seems to be true that as communities grow older the facilities for placing out children without payment, grow less, and the demand is limited more and more to children of certain classes and certain ages. It seems to me probable, therefore, that the state institutions of Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Kansas may, not many years hence, find their facilities for placing out children without payment decreasing, and the number of children to be cared for increasing. If such should prove to be the case it is to be hoped that they will consider the advisability of combining the boarding system with their present methods, rather than enlarging their institutions or building new ones.

May we not hope and believe that from the volume of experience now being gained in all these varying methods, there is being evolved a system more perfect than any one of them, and to which they will all gradually be conformed.

MR. CHAMBERLAIN ON LICENSING REFORM.

An afternoon meeting was held July 6th, by the invitation of the Duke of Westminster, at Grosvenor-house, to consider the Scandinavian method of public-house reform. The Duke of Westminster presided, and there was a very large and distinguished gathering of ladies and gentlemen, among those present being the Duchess of Westminster, the Duke of Argyll, the Bishops of St. Asaph and Chester, Cardinal Vaughan, Mr. and Mrs. Chamberlain, Lord Wantage, Lord Wemyss, Admiral Field, M. P., and many other members of Parliament.

The Duke of Westminster, in opening the proceedings said :—I dare say that it is not assuming too much to suppose that the ladies and gentlemen who have assembled here this afternoon—impressed with the gross evils of drunkenness, and all that term implies—are favorably disposed to some moderate reform of our licensing laws, and that, consequently, they desire to learn all that is known of the Scandinavian system, which some of us desire to see introduced into this country, and which observes that condition. Briefly, the “Gothenburg system,” as it is called, while recognizing the reasonable desire for alcoholic liquor, guards against its abuse and excess in indulgence by its organization. Its principal features are the acquirement of licenses by companies in localities by purchase, and by equitable consideration to the holders of those licenses ; the profits on the sale of spirits, with a deduction of five or six per cent., are all devoted to objects of general public utility, such as public gardens, museums, libraries, and such like, at the discretion of the local authorities ; the profits are now allowed to go in relief of the rates. The attendants are paid by salary, and have no motive in pushing the sale of liquor, and allow no credit, taking cash payments only. The Bishop of Chester’s Bill of last year embodying these principles, was not unfavorably received in

the House of Lords, but the leaders of the House considered that they had no sufficient information to warrant it to come to any decided approval of the scheme or to pass the second reading. Since that time, twelve months ago, much of the necessary information has been supplied by the highest authorities in Sweden, and notably by an exhaustive report on the history and working of the system by Dr. Gould, a Commissioner under the Labor Department of the United States, for the information of the Government of that country, wholly favorable to the scheme, and acting upon it, the Legislature of Massachusetts has recently adopted the principle, and has passed the Norwegian Bill, as it is called, through both Houses, and in spite of the combination of the liquor interest and of the ultra-prohibitionists, a matter of no little encouragement to us.

Mr. Chamberlain, who was received with cheers, said:—My Lord Duke, my Lords, Ladies, and Gentlemen,—I have been asked to move the first resolution, and I believe I owe that honor to the fact that I was, among politicians at any rate, in some sort a pioneer of this movement. In 1877 I introduced a resolution in its favor into the House of Commons, and a little later I gave evidence before the Lords' committee, which made certainly one of the most exhaustive and valuable inquiries into the whole subject that has ever been made by any responsible public body. You will recollect that as one of the results of that committee, recommendations were reported to Parliament, including among them one that this scheme should have a fair trial. Well, in 1877 I failed—that is to say, I failed to bring Parliament round to my opinion—and although I have not, in the slightest degree, had my confidence in the soundness of the principles which were then laid down shaken or destroyed, yet I must confess that I have allowed the matter to slumber, for reasons about which I may hereafter have a few words to say, and therefore, if it is now revived with, I hope, greater prospects of success, that is due entirely to the efforts of the Lord Bishop of Chester, and to those who have worked with him,

and if he is more fortunate than I was, the whole credit will belong to him. Under those circumstances it is only at his express and personal wish that I have undertaken to fill a place which very much properly belongs to him on the present occasion. Well, now, we have to recommend to you what is known as the Gothenburg plan of dealing with the liquor traffic. In the opinion of every impartial man who has investigated it, it has been a remarkable success. It was introduced into Gothenburg in the year 1865. It has extended gradually, but with increasing rapidity, throughout the whole of Sweden, till now it includes every town of the slightest importance and the metropolis of Sweden itself. It has subsequently been adopted, with slight modifications, in the adjoining country of Norway.

What is the plan we are asked to consider? I deal exclusively with the plan of the Bishop of Chester, which differs in some minor points from either the Swedish or the Norwegian plan. It is this. It is proposed that powers should be given—Parliamentary powers—to a public company or, as I should prefer to call it, a public trust, to acquire by purchase the whole of the licenses in the town or district in which it is formed. Of course, it will follow from this that if these licenses are so acquired the licensing authority will be forbidden to issue any other licenses, unless, it may be, under exceptional circumstances, and then they must issue them to the company which possesses the rest, so that the company or trust will have an absolute monopoly within its district. This proposal is, of course, accompanied by very important conditions. The first is that in buying the licenses full value—fair and even full value—by way of compensation, shall be given to every interest concerned. I do not hesitate to say that I despair absolutely of any extensive reform of the licensing system unless this principle of fair compensation is fully adopted, because, in the first place, if any idea of confiscation were to be traced in our proposal we should at once meet with the strenuous and undying hostility of the liquor trade. They are not by any means a foe

to be despised, and in my opinion they would be absolutely within their right in offering the strongest possible opposition to any proposal to rob them of their property. But I defend the principle of compensation, not so much as a question of good policy, but as a question of common right and justice. The second proposal is that when this trust is constituted it shall be absolutely precluded from dividing among the persons who find the capital anything more than the barest interest, the interest which, in fact, they would be able to get anywhere outside upon first-class security. If there be any larger profits to be divided, the principle of this plan is that those profits shall not go to the private shareholders, but shall go to some public purpose, which is to be defined by Act of Parliament, but with the provision that in no circumstances shall it be put to a purpose which is either rate-supported or rate-aided, so that ratepayers may be without personal interest in the extension of the sale of drink. Well, then, connected with this, and, perhaps, a matter of even greater importance, is the condition which will form a part of the grant of authority—the condition that, if the transfer is effected, no one who is connected with the trade in any shape or form, either as seller or manager or servant, shall have the slightest pecuniary interest in the sale of drink. On the contrary, one of the proposals to which we attach great importance, is that all the managers should be paid at a fixed salary; that if they want to increase their income they shall obtain that increase, not from the sale of drink, but from the sale of things which should come into competition with drink; for instance, non-intoxicating liquors, food, and so forth. The last important condition will be that the public trust should undertake within a reasonable and a very brief period after acquiring the licenses to make a very considerable reduction in their number. Those, then, are the conditions under which it is proposed to transfer the trade in drink from private hands to those of a public trust.

What we seek is not abolition, but regulation; and it is by the probabilities of success in regulating drinking and

in avoiding drunkenness and the evils attendant on drunkenness that any proposal of this kind must be judged. I go on, then, to ask you to consider what is likely—what, *a priori*, would you believe would be the result of the adoption of this system? In the first place, after the law was passed there would be an immediate and an immense reduction in the number of public-houses. Is that no small gain? Then consider for a moment what the result of eliminating personal gain from the pursuit of any trade must of necessity be. I will take an instance. Take Chester, with a population of 40,000. I believe there are 220 licenses there. You have 220 men who by the necessity of the case must be intelligent, and you have them pushing to the very utmost the business which they are conducting, and they are doing it under the pressure of the most tremendous competition, in which the weakest must go to the wall. Is it not absolutely certain that the presence of these men must go far to account for the proportion of the drinking and the drunkenness in Chester? And if, instead of these 220 commission agents for drink, you had a number of men not one of whom had any interest in the matter, to whom it was absolutely indifferent whether he sold a pint or whether he sold a barrel, is it not obvious that this must be immediately followed by a great advance in the direction of the diminution of drinking? A proposal of this kind is going to do what all our laws have failed in doing. Everything which is done by the trust company when it has once been created, must be by way of restricting drinking and not by way of extending it. All the existing laws will remain in force, and the trust company will be liable to their obligations the same as the publicans whom it succeeds. The only difference is that in addition to these laws and regulations further restrictions may from time to time be introduced. On a review, then, of the whole matter, it appears to me that there is hardly a single object, except total prohibition, which temperance reformers ever had in view, which will not be brought much nearer to attainment, which will not be readily attainable,

under this system. Mr. Chamberlain concluded by moving this resolution:—"That an association be constituted to promote the reform of public-houses, to be called 'The Public-house Reform Association.'"

This was carried unanimously.

The Bishop of Chester moved—"That her Majesty's Government be requested to institute an inquiry as to the working of the Scandinavian system of public-house reform, and also of the canteen system in the British Army, with a view to the application of similar principles in such town and country districts as may desire to adopt them."

Mr. Wyndham, M. P., seconded the resolution, which was also adopted.

CIVICS AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.*

My theme is the civic and national import of the local, public school.

What is meant by "civics?"

Professor Bryce has called attention to the French term, "civisure," which has a larger significance than patriotism, and includes all that is meant in the United States by the spirit of the patriotic, domestic, civic, and social, as opposed to the anti-social man. It has the race welfare as its goal.

The student should learn that every question, however trivial, is, if important to his neighborhood, a national, and even international, question. He should realize that if fifteen million dollars are taken from New York city by official corruption, or nine million dollars from Philadelphia by mismanagement of the railway franchises, that this is only an example "writ large" which may be copied in his own township.

* An address delivered before the Normal Institute at Abilene, by request of the Kansas Bureau of Statistics, by Rev. Clarence Greeley, General Agent of the International Law and Order League.

He should know that a somewhat successful attempt to violate the laws against pugilism in Florida, or an unsuccessful attempt at Roby, Ind., or Coney Island, N. Y., has its influence on every school boy and corner grocery in the land. It moves the nation and the world.

He should be taught that a national society which sent, last April, a large sum of money to New Britain, Conn., in aid of local violation of the laws, thereby shows that "all of us" are concerned in the civic affairs of "some of us."

He should understand that the lottery spirit which put back Louisiana twenty-five years, and threatens to do the same thing for Kansas, is a danger of international interest.

Each school boy in every back-woods district should feel that he belongs to an international contest. Otherwise the mere deposit of one vote among several millions at a national election will not inspire him. In England, even a parliamentary election does not call out more than half the voters. The pupil must be made to feel that he is a part and leader in a great educational movement, vast as the continent and the cosmos, a king and priest unto God and man for whom creation waits.

He should learn that the public school is a national institution. We are glad to note the introduction of civics into the curriculums. Sociological courses in Johns Hopkins, Harvard, Cornell, and elsewhere are commendable.

It is well that in this county you recently decided to introduce Dole's "American Citizen" into the schools. Said Mr. Skinner in a symposium before a Kansas Teachers' Convention: "The time is coming, when, in every High School, there will be a chair in sociology." But all this may be done and still the pupil may fail to see that the public school is a national institution.

Men advocate a national university, but every district school is of national importance.

We hear of nationalization of land, mines, or railroads, but far more important is the nationalization of the individual. More than a decade ago I read from the pen of a

Kansas teacher an essay entitled, "The Public School a School for the Public."

The public school exists in a peculiar sense of the people, for the people, and by the people.

The church is not supported by the state. The home is not supported by the state. But the public school *is* supported by the state and should provide, perhaps, above all things else, for the state's perpetuity and welfare. So only, except from the standpoint of state socialism, has the state a right to educate its citizens.

Every pupil should find himself, even while in school, in contact with a state, national, or international civic movement. The idea of civic study is in the air. Said an observant Englishman: "I fancy that in the United States no boy passes through the high school without having been taught something about the constitution of his state, and perhaps of his country also." Progress in the recognition of the individual's civic worth, has been made as history shows.

Says M. Tarde in "*La Criminalité*:" "In Egypt, a heavy penalty would be inflicted upon an artisan who busied himself with public affairs; while in our democratic societies one would be more inclined to punish by law electors who abstained from voting."

But is there any adequate stimulus to the investigation of the ethical phases of civics? No. Ethics has been considered the driest of all subjects.

Sir Wilfred Lawson, M. P., explained, in a letter to myself, that he did not know the laws in his own country on the subject of pugilism.

Every school should be connected with a bureau of live sociological facts—such as the Kansas Bureau or International League. It should be in touch with a State or National Bureau of Social Statistics.

James Bryce has said that there is no institution in America which corresponds to a European Cabinet to devise remedies for public wrongs.

There should be such an institution in every public school. It should believe, with Guyan, that the object of education is nothing less than the welfare of the human race. To this end the remotest public school should keep in touch with its time and with all times.

"Love thou thy land with love far brought
From out the storied past, and used
Within the present, but transfused
Through future time by power of thought."

Permit me in conclusion to recommend to public schools the adoption of the following

PRINCIPLES OF THE CIVIC ENDEAVOR COMMITTEE.

I. Our local civic endeavor bears a relation to the state, the nation, and the world.

II. We believe that every public school, being supported by the state, should have a non-partisan committee for the promotion of the state's perpetuity and welfare.

III. We heartily indorse the aim of those educational authorities who have introduced the study of civics into the public schools, and have recommended for every high school a chair in sociology.

IV. As a committee of students, considerate of the wishes of parents, boards, and teachers, and by correspondence with some state, national or international society, we will endeavor, so far as may be consistent with our other duties, to do what we can for the elevation of the tone of citizenship in our school, town, city, or county, and in every land.

SPINAL DISEASE IN CHILDREN.

I want to write to you of a class of people who, it seems to me, have little help in the present state of affairs, for whom a little help at the right time might do untold good. I mean deformed people.

That is a word, which, since I was fourteen I have shrunk from in print, or spoken, because since then I have known I must be classed in that class. I have been trying to break myself of that foolish dread enough in the last year as to write to you on this subject, for I have become convinced that the great majority of deformed children, if taken when young and systematically cared for, could be entirely, and even often, speedily cured. And I cannot understand why this is not work for the state and for state legislatures as well as to provide deaf and dumb schools and similar institutions.

Perhaps if I tell you a little of my own life you can understand something of what such a child contends with and how little opportunity there is for help in the way things are at present.

I do not write of this because it is easy for me to. For years I have always kept this down and out of my mind and thoughts, never thinking of it and never speaking of it. But if I can do any good by speaking, I want to.

When I was born, they assure me that I was as healthy and happy a girl baby as any one ever saw. My father, who was a large strong man, over six feet, died just before I was born, from illness contracted in the war. There were four other girls, all pretty, and liking the pretty things girls generally do, and a little mother, who up to that time had never done anything in her life, when my grandfather's fortune went to pieces with his and my father's death. When I was older and began to walk I developed curvature of the spine, and yet remained apparently one of the sturdiest of

children. There were no specialists where we lived; so one family doctor after another looked at the case, but they knew nothing to do. Some thought as I was so healthy I had better be left alone. Some that I would outgrow it, etc.

I don't think a scarcity of money prevented my mother from trying to do something for me as it would have some people in like circumstances, because she has always overcome such difficulties. I know if she had thought anything could have been done without hurting my health, she would have tried to do it. But she could learn of no doctor or hospital to send children to except where almost everything seemed a mere experiment, and often at the expense of the child's health or even life.

Undoubtedly many of the stories told her of the failures to help children were exaggerated, but of course to a mother they seemed frightful, so I was kept at home. As I continued well and strong I was sent to school at the age other children were, at five years I believe. I sat in the same little wooden chairs, lounged over my desk and stood resting my weight on one foot while I recited, exactly as the average child does, but unfortunately I did not stand the same chance the average child does of coming out unharmed.

Things kept on in this way for some years although we moved West, where the school life was about the same. I grew up in blissful ignorance of what was coming to me and was a veritable little romp. Then, in an unfortunate moment my mother got a farm, and a doctor told her to let me ride horseback. I suppose this was the last straw. I galloped about the prairie every day, of course on a side saddle. It was the side saddle that did the work.

When I was fourteen I suddenly discovered it. I had known vaguely for some years that my mother held for some peculiar reason that my back was weak, but little loose dresses and wonderful aprons had literally hid it from the rest of the world as far as I knew and also from myself. I don't think I shall ever forget that night when I first realized all this.

That summer a young doctor, a specialist, came to the city. My mother took me to him immediately, and he began treatment. It consisted principally of putting me into a plaster cast, and proved worse than useless. I have since been told by specialists that it was the wrong thing entirely to do. And yet this was the only opportunity in a city that we think is bright and progressive, and the doctor was recommended by the best physicians in the city, half a dozen of whom were warm friends of ours. This will perhaps give you some idea of how very helpless people, outside of perhaps Boston and New York, are in such cases.

After I went home I rapidly grew strong again. By the time I was fifteen the future began to look pretty dark, and then I began to study. When I was sixteen we left the farm and I entered a high school, and I determined to enter some college. I then took two years at an accessible college and was nearly ready for the freshman class in the classical course when I saw plainly I must earn my way. So, naturally, I tried teaching, or rather, thought I would.

Unfortunately the people I applied to were generally Scandinavian directors and they did not know me, and again, I had a very childish face, so I did not get a school. It is only amusing now, but it cut quite deeply then, because boys and girls whom I had worked "examples" for and made translations for, got schools. I foolishly let it worry me and began to wonder what I would do if I took every one's money and went through college and then no one would have me to do anything.

I know now it does not pay to let in a cowardly thought, for it soon takes possession. I never went back to school. I never had any success in getting positions, because no one would be convinced that I was strong enough. When I was twenty-one I came to Apalachia, and took some land near where this town has since grown, and I also got some at our county town. I have done very well, though the late money troubles have taken most of it, but I don't mind that so much because it might happen to anyone, though of course

it is not desirable. You will see from all this how very little opportunity there is for a little child in this country whose parents are not rich, and who has any deformity, of being cured. And you will see just how hard it is for any one to be cut off from others. For try as they may, they always are, to a certain extent, especially at first, among strangers. If any one could save one child from that, I should think his life had counted for a great deal, and I believe that it can be done.

A year ago a treatment was brought to my notice which consists of rubbing and kneading the muscles, especially those along the spine. *It is not* Swedish movement, although I think some parts of the Swedish system might be used to advantage with this.

I have kept up this treatment for eleven months now, two hours each day, had a strong woman to do it, and so far, even to the most careless and skeptical person, it is plain it has accomplished wonders. And since I have looked into the matter I have found one young lady who was entirely cured at the age of fifteen of a bad case of curvature of the spine by just such treatment. I intend to try and look up all such cases I can and be sure they are reliable. I also know of a mother whose child's foot was quite turned out and she rubbed it and pressed it an hour a day until she got it quite straight. It would seem to me that asylums or hospitals might be started by the different states.

It stands to reason children taken when young and the muscles pliable and the bones soft, could easily be straightened and made straight with the hands instead of putting them in plaster casts and forcing the bones into shape, or trying to. It seems sometimes as though we always try to do the hard thing instead of the reasonable one.

I had thought all this year if I could do this then I could prove it could be done to the world, and then surely the different states or some one would start institutions at which people could be cured. But I find it takes a long time and is slow work. Still of course I intend to keep right

on. Lately I have thought I could perhaps find some one who had a little child,—or perhaps some poor child, or a hospital doctor who would give his time to it. The doctors to whom I have spoken have encouraged me. But, as I am glad to say, there is no child in this neighborhood who needs any such care.

H. F. C.

[We print this interesting letter as it comes to us, though it was not meant for publication. If any reader of *LEND A HAND* knows of a child in the need described, we shall be happy to refer him to H. F. C. The larger purpose of the letter will be fulfilled if it calls boards of health or the chiefs of hospitals to observe the lamentable ignorance on such subjects, which as H. F. C. says, seems to be “of course” even in intelligent communities. [—EDS. *LEND A HAND*.]

APACHE INDIANS IN FLORIDA.

The statement of the House conferees on the Army Appropriation Bill was presented July 27th by Mr. Outhwaite, Chairman of the managers on the part of the House. There was little that provoked debate, aside from that part which related to the 19th amendment, which read as follows :

The effect of amendment No. 19 as amended provides that the Secretary of War is authorized to remove to such military reservation or reservations as he may select the Indian prisoners of war now confined at Mount Vernon Barracks, Alabama, and makes an appropriation of the sum of \$15,000 in addition to sums herein appropriated, to be expended under the direction of the Secretary of War, for the purpose of erecting buildings, the purchase of draft animals, stock, necessary farming tools, seeds, household utensils, and such other articles needed for such Indians. This amendment provides a method of distributing the Indian women and children and men who are not likely to be dangerous, now held as prisoners in Mount Vernon Barracks, in such a way as to give them an opportunity of becoming assimilated into other Indian tribes without any danger resulting therefrom.

A long, animated, and rather amusing discussion ensued, a full report of which may be found in the *Congressional Record*, of July 28th, 1894:

Mr. Flynn, of Oklahoma, objected strongly to changes which had been made in the report, saying that the original report from the Senate committee provided that the Secretary of War should remove these Indians to Fort Sill in the Indian Territory, and authorizing him to remove them to some place not prohibited by existing law. They were prohibited by existing law from going into his territory, but when the conferees met they framed the provision so as to leave it optional with the Secretary of War to remove these Indians to wherever he sees fit.

Mr. Flynn said that through the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, he had learned they could not take care of the Indians in the prisons of Alabama, and so it was proposed to locate them among feeble and scattered settlers, in defiance of existing statutes, and where they would do a great deal of harm. Mr. Flynn's opinion of Indians was bad, and he was unwilling to see any of the "murderous band" placed in his territory. We make short extracts from his speech:

MR. FLYNN. The only argument advanced for removing those Indians from where they are and putting them in my Territory is the argument of economy. Now, the life of a settler in our Territory is worth more to us, and it ought to be worth more to every member of this House, than an appropriation of \$10,000, \$15,000, or \$25,000 for the purpose of corralling and keeping under control certain murderous Indians. If you turn them loose upon us, as proposed in this bill, there is not one of the four states I have referred to that will not come here in most earnest protest against such a measure.

I repeat that if we had a Senator today in the other branch of Congress this amendment would never have been proposed. The Senator from Kentucky in charge of the bill very properly said that nobody wanted these Indians; that they must be turned loose somewhere; and in looking around they

found my Territory, which is not represented, as none of the other Territories are, and they said, "We will locate these Indians down in Oklahoma, because in that we can save part of the appropriation that is now expended by the War Department in feeding them."

MR. OUTHWAITE. Mr. Speaker, that was a very eloquent speech to which we have just listened. But it was prepared for another occasion than this. It was prepared to meet an amendment which was put on this bill in the Senate providing that the Secretary of War be authorized and directed to send all these Indians to the Fort Sill military reservation. Now, to such a proposition as that there might be some objection; in opposition to it some of the arguments submitted by the gentleman from Oklahoma [Mr. FLYNN], would have some force. But he says that we got into conference and, without consulting him, changed that amendment.

Sir, the gentleman came to me and laid before me just about the same objections that he has urged here in his speech today. Taking his objections with me into the conference, I recommended certain amendments to that amendment of the Senate; and I also went to the Secretary of War, to whom I suggested the propriety of the amendment, stating its purposes, to all of which he assented. But before I had gone to the Secretary of War he had sent an officer of the Army to see me as chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs, suggesting that he ought not to be directed to send these Indians, but that he ought to have authority to keep them imprisoned in Alabama, at least those who had been guilty of atrocities and were actually criminals.

But what is the case he wished to meet and which the House and Senate conferees wished to meet? There were 260 of these Indians down there in prison. Perhaps thirty of them are those persons who were engaged in these atrocities and cruelties for which they were justly imprisoned. Sixty per cent. of the whole mass of the people down there have been born while in prison. We are keeping in prison, there-

fore, over two hundred people because of the offences committed by their fathers. We are keeping them also at a very great and unnecessary expense. We are keeping them where they must become vicious, because they have no opportunities of cultivation or of entering into the struggle for life with those around them.

Now, this amendment does not send them to any particular place, to Oklahoma any more than anywhere else. In the first place, it is provided that the Secretary is authorized—not directed, but is authorized—not to send all of the Indians, but to send Indians; and it is the purpose only to send a portion of the Indians who are not dangerous; that is to say, the women and children. Where? Not on an Indian reservation, but to send them out amongst all of the military reservations in the United States; that is to say, that he may send one family to one military reservation, where they will be under the cognizance of the officers of the Army, and where they will be furnished some means to start in life.

Then another family will be sent to another military reservation—not an Indian reservation; and so on, scattering them around amongst the military reservations generally throughout the country, where they will be under the authority of army officers, thus distributing these persons who are at present suffering imprisonment because of the crimes committed by their fathers, out into the world, giving them an opportunity like human beings to make their own way and to establish themselves in life.

Mr. Outhwaite stated that the Secretary of War had discretion to distribute the Indians amongst the military reservations as he thought wise.

MR. SMITH, of Arizona, was bitterly opposed to the amendment as he did not deem it advisable that any of the Apaches should be sent west of the Missouri river.

MR. SMITH. The proposition was dictated by a false sentiment that the health of the Apaches is not as good in Alabama as in the mountains of Arizona. I want to say

right here to this House that the fact that these Indians should not be moved west of the Mississippi has been demonstrated by Gen. Miles, than whom no greater Indian fighter has been known in modern times, who settled the Indian question by getting these Apaches from Arizona; who settled this Indian question by taking them away and sending them to Alabama, or rather the President did it under his advice.

Gen. Miles was before the Committee on Indian Affairs when the Senate had passed in the last Congress a resolution similar to this. I had Gen. Miles subpoenaed to appear before that committee. He went before the committee and in the most earnest terms begged the committee never to think for a moment of removing these Indians or any of these Indians back beyond the Mississippi River. He gave instances of where escapes had been made very near to St. Louis. Indians had escaped in carrying them to Fort Sill. One of them who escaped found his way into the White Mountain Reservation, and was soon on the war path, and so far as I know is still on it.

You can not send these Apaches to any military reservations in the West without practically surrendering them. Any one of these Apaches, if he is fifteen years old, can leave any one of the military reservations in the West, unless you put him behind the bars and lock him up, and will find his way to the White Mountains for himself. He is well acquainted with Mexico. To those gentlemen who so often declare the fact that the Indian is passing away in the sunlight of civilization, I will suggest that from 1878 to 1879, when these Indians were placed where they are, sixty per cent. of the two hundred or over that are there, have been born on that reservation.

If you want to cultivate the Indian, if you want to increase that population, keep him where he is; and in answer to the other suggestion made by the Chairman of the committee, that there were no depredations committed by the Indians in Alabama, I would say that the wisdom on the part of this House would be shown in keeping them where they

are when it is found that there is one place on which on God's green earth an Apache can stand the treatment of other people, of other colors, and other nationalities on earth, and continue to live under it. I say I congratulate the House and this country on the fact that it has found such a place for the Apaches, and that is the best place to keep them.

It is much better than this idea of sending them back. Then here is a provision of \$15,000 to buy horses and plows, and to educate them. Now, if the experience of any man who knows the Apache can show me any of the Geronimo White Spring Apache Indians, of which these were a part, who has at any time put his hand for one hour to any work, I will surrender this argument now. I say that, send him where you please. You say you will send these children to the military reservations and teach them how to plow. I want to call the attention of the House to the fact that my people are particularly interested in this matter.

This follows the idea of civilizing this Apache tribe of Indians. If you send these children West, the next thing you may send them to Fort Huachuca or Fort Grant, in Arizona, or the Prescott military reservation. There is nothing to prevent that, if you are to send these children where they would be near their friends. All of that could be done under the sentiment that prompted this bill, and will do it. I am justified in that assertion. I tell you they would get back, as Gen. Miles said. He told the committee he never would send one of them back west of the Missouri River.

There is no provision protecting us against sending them west of the Missouri River, or anything to prevent putting Geronimo there, notwithstanding the very honest statement made by the gentleman in charge of this bill, that the Secretary would not consent to that; but under the operation of that law there is no telling how soon it might be done. Secretaries of War do not live forever. You will not be able to stop it, and they will very soon return, as Gen. Miles said, and it will ultimate in a war with these Apaches again.

There are six or eight or ten of them out now who have been maulauding in Mexico and in this country, headed by one of your beautiful educated Apaches by the name of "Kid," one of those Indians who has had the advantages of education, and they have left and are still leaving the corpses of settlers hundreds of miles away from the reservations, and even going on to the reservations and killing Indians that were antagonistic to them. They are out now in the mountains of Mexico and probably in Arizona.

I protest against it in the name of the peace of this country. I protest against it in the name of the murders that they have committed. I protest against it in the name of humanity. If this provision goes through and those Indians are scattered, my word for it, they will come together and renew their depredations. A hundred miles between them amounts to nothing, with their signal lights visible everywhere from the mountain tops. The difficulty in catching them before was that they would separate and then, by their signal fires upon the mountains, would appoint a rendezvous perhaps two hundred miles south. You can not keep them from going out from the reservations at any time in a country like that, where signals can be seen at least a hundred miles with the naked eye.

Tell me that they will not go back! If they have been subjected to the horrors of which the gentleman speaks, and if they require the sympathy which is at the bottom of this proposed legislation, I suggest that that sympathy had better be exercised toward the poor white people who will certainly become the victims of these murderous Indians if you allow them to go back into that country. They will go back all the more aggrieved, according to what we have heard here—

MR. OUTHWAITE. These men are not going back at all.

MR. SMITH, of Arizona. The bill does not say that. Put it in the bill that no male Indian over the age of sixteen shall be taken west of the Missouri River, and, so far as I am concerned, I will consent to that, because I think that means safety to my people.

Some of those Western military reservations are ten miles square, with no fence, no inclosure, and with only two or three companies of soldiers. There is no means of confining these Indians to a reservation unless they are in a stockade, as you have them in Alabama; and I appeal to the Chairman of the committee to say whether the women and the children of the Apaches there now are not going in and out there as freely as anybody?

MR. OUTHWAITE. They are; and they have never gone back to Arizona either, or tried to go back.

MR. SMITH, of Arizona. No; I do not think the women and children would try to walk from Alabama back to Arizona, or would try to swim the rivers, but if you get them to the other side of the Missouri River they will go back and they will take their women and children with them. I have myself seen the Apache Indians on the war trail, a party of perhaps fifty men with as many women, hiding in the mountains and killing everybody that they could possibly sneak up to without danger of losing their own lives. As sure as this bill passes in its present shape these things will happen again, if not under the present Secretary of War then under some later Secretary.

I do trust that this House will never allow this report to go through. This proposition has been beaten heretofore, and would be beaten again if it could be met directly as an independent measure. These Indians can be kept more cheaply, every one of them, at the Fifth Avenue Hotel in New York than you will ever keep them if they get back to the military reservation.

MR. OUTHWAITE. They are costing twice as much now every year as the amount of this appropriation.

MR. SMITH. I do not care about that. If they once commence this movement toward Sonora, it will cost the military arm of the Government many millions of dollars to catch even a few of them. Why not put these Indians somewhere else? Are there not plenty of places to which they can be taken? I see before me a gentleman who represents the

beautiful civilization that surrounds and resides in the great city of Boston. That philanthropic community loves the Indians.

Why not take these Indians to that portion of the country? They will educate the Boston people—will show them what an Apache Indian is. Take the Indian and put him on a little farm up there with his farming implements and see how long he will remain.

MR. HULL. Mr. Chairman, when I went into the conference on this bill I was opposed, as an original proposition to any amendment whatever to the Senate amendment. But on consultation with other gentlemen, the proposition of the Senate to remove these Indians from Alabama seemed to me so strongly backed up by proof as to the necessity for a change, that I was willing to consent to a modification of the Senate amendment so that the Secretary of War should have such discretion as would permit him to deal with this question in the full light of whatever might be necessary to be done.

The gentleman from Oklahoma [MR. FLYNN] and the gentleman from Arizona [MR. SMITH] assume in their argument in the first place that these Indians must necessarily be sent to Oklahoma or Arizona; in other words they assume that the Secretary of War will in the treatment of this question do the very thing he should not do. What may be their basis for that belief is more than I can explain or understand. The Secretary of War himself has not taken primary action in the removal of these Indians because at his suggestion the Senate amendment was changed by striking out the word "directed." By that amendment as it passed the Senate the Secretary was "authorized and directed" to remove these Indians. He had no discretion as the amendment came from the Senate. He was directed to remove them. As I understand, the gentleman from Oklahoma was satisfied with the amendment as originally passed by the Senate.

MR. FLYNN. That is correct.

MR. HULL. Why? Because that amendment as originally

passed provided that the Secretary of War should not send these Indians to any place now prohibited by law, and he is prohibited by law from sending them to Oklahoma. In other words, the gentleman from Oklahoma was willing to have that amendment passed, not only authorizing but directing the Secretary of War to remove these Indians from Alabama and to send them wherever he pleased, provided he did not send them to Oklahoma. The gentleman thus concedes the advisability of removing these Indians. Mr. Speaker, if this is true, the House will not act from very high motives if it should limit the discretion of the Secretary of War so that he may send these Indians to any place in the United States except Oklahoma.

So far as concerns the gentleman from Arizona [Mr. SMITH], I understand that he objects to removing these Indians to any place west of the Missouri River, although the Secretary of War could send them to numerous reservations west of the Missouri River not prohibited by law. So that the gentleman from Arizona goes farther on this question now than he went in his statements before the conferees.

Mr. Speaker, it seems to me that the Secretary of War, in calling attention to the fact that he does not wish to be absolutely directed by law to remove these Indians, shows that he realizes he has the entire field before him and will do what is right in the treatment of this question.

It was further shown by the evidence before the conferees that it was the intention of the Department not to send these Indians to any single military reservation, but to send them to military reservations; in other words, to break up their organization by sending certain families to one reservation, and certain other families to other reservations, thus widely distributing them over the different reservations of the country.

As a matter of humanity I want to say to the House that the time has come when something must be done for these Indians; not the old criminal who was sent there as a punishment, but the great number of children born in cap-

tivity. I believe that under the construction the Secretary of War puts on the original amendment, and his desire for the modification, that he will send none of these criminals—the old Indian prisoners—out of the stockades and the prisons at all. Those he will send out will be only the women and children. But when sixty per cent of these people have been born in captivity, it is not right to treat them in this cruel manner by keeping them in constant captivity for the offences of their fathers and continue them during their entire lives in prison.

Mr. Smith asked how the estimate was made that 60 per cent. of these Indians were born in captivity, and Mr. Outhwaite gave him the statistics.

Healthy and able-bodied men	13
Women	102
Boys and girls over 12	21
Boys and girls under 12	103

That is where I got my 60 per cent. calculation. These must have been born since the imprisonment began. That makes a total of 239 under the head of "healthy and able-bodied."

Again :

Sickly and infirm men and women	63
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MR. SMITH. How many men are in that "sickly and infirm" list?

MR. OUTHWAITE. I am reading all the information I have on the subject, which is a statement submitted from the Department.

Men and women	63
Boys and girls over 12	1
Boys and girls under 12	16
Indian soldiers	47
Total	366

It is stated here that these 366 persons constitute about seventy families of five persons each.

I believe this is the best that can be done. I believe the time has come to take the women and children of this old Geronimo band out of captivity.

Now, I wish to say a word or two further concerning this amendment. I have stated to the House that the amendment which was offered in the Senate, and which was so very objectionable to the gentleman from Arizona [Mr. Smith] and to the gentleman from Oklahoma [Mr. Flynn], was suggested to the Secretary of War, and that the Secretary of War does not intend or expect, and does not want to be compelled, to distribute these men among these military reservations or to release them from prison; but that it is the purpose of the War Department to distribute the women and children among military reservations where, as it is said in the letter of the Secretary of War, they will be under the observation of military officers. There is no danger connected with distributing a family here and there, in the way that we propose.

If there were a military reservation in Ohio large enough to afford them room, I should not object to one or two or three families of five persons each going to Ohio and having an opportunity to start in life. There are ninety-five military posts and reservations. There are probably forty of these that have enough ground to accommodate some of these families, and upon which they can have the opportunities of life such as other human beings have. That is all we desire. The War Department, as is shown by the frequent efforts that have been made heretofore in previous administrations, do not wish to keep over 200 women and children in prison all their lives, because of the sins of their fathers. So far as any efforts have been made in the direction of sending them back to the neighborhood from which they came, I believe those efforts to have been ill-advised.

MR. SMITH. If they are to be turned loose, why not turn them loose in Alabama?

MR. BROSIUS. The family relation is maintained within the stockades, is it not?

MR. OUTHWAITE. To a certain extent.

MR. BROSIUS. I understand that the population is increasing?

MR. OUTHWAITE. That is correct.

MR. BROSIUS. How many years will the stockades contain that growing population?

MR. OUTHWAITE. Not very long at the present rate of increase. As I said before, 60 per cent. of these people were born in prison, and it is about time that the American people should give them an opportunity to live out of prison.

I move the adoption of the conference report, and upon that I demand the previous question.

The previous question was ordered.

The conference report was agreed to.

On motion of Mr. Outhwaite, a motion to reconsider the last vote was laid on the table.

UNITED STATES SANITARY COMMISSION.*

To understand the importance of the work of this body, we must remember that the army was created from young men who had no previous military training, and was mainly officered by men who had no knowledge of sanitary laws as applied to the conduct of soldiers in barracks or on the field. The medical staff of the sixteen thousand troops in the service before the war was not even sufficient to teach the surgeons necessary for an army of a million. There was the greatest danger that the army would fail of efficiency from lack of attention to sanitary precautions and want of medical and hospital supplies.

Never before had the attempt been made to create an effective fighting force of such magnitude in the same lim-

* Extract from an address before the Soldiers' Club at Wellesley, Mass., May 30th, 1894, by Josiah H. Benton, Jr.

ited time. The mortality from disease was necessarily great, the waste of life by sickness was necessarily enormous, and it would have been still greater but for the constant aid of the Sanitary Commission, and of the women who practically originated it and supported it.

They first moved to supply the necessities of the army in this direction, and to them is due the chief credit for an instrumentality which, it has been estimated, by reducing the mortality of our troops by disease from the usual proportion of four to one in battle or by wounds, to two to one, saved more than one hundred and eighty thousand lives.

The war began on the twelfth of April, 1861, with the attack upon Fort Sumter in Charleston harbor, which surrendered on the thirteenth. Two days after, President Lincoln issued his call for seventy-five thousand troops to serve three months.

The patriotic and benevolent women of the country immediately began to organize. On the seventeenth of April a public meeting to organize a Soldiers' Aid Society was held in Cleveland, Ohio, and on the twenty-ninth, at a meeting of fifty or sixty women informally called in the city of New York, a suggestion was made that the aid societies of the women of the country be organized into a general and central association, and an appeal was addressed to the women of New York and others "already engaged in preparing against the time of wounds and sickness in the army," which resulted in the organization of the "Women's Central Association of Relief" for the sick and wounded of the army.

An association was formed about the same time called "The Advisory Committee of the Boards of Physicians and Surgeons of the Hospitals of New York," and another association, called the "New York Medical Association for furnishing Hospital Supplies in aid of the Army."

On the eighteenth of May the representatives of these

three associations addressed a communication to the Secretary of War, asking for the appointment of a—

“mixed commission of civilians, distinguished for their philanthropic experience and acquaintance with sanitary matters, of medical men, and of military officers, who shall be charged with the duty of investigating the best means of methodizing and reducing to practical service the already active but undirected benevolence of the people toward the army; who shall consider the general subject of the prevention of sickness and suffering among the troops, and suggest the wisest methods which the people at large can use to manifest their good-will towards the comfort, security, and health of the army.”

This address stated that the Women's Central Association of Relief had selected out of several hundred candidates one hundred women suited in all respects to become nurses in the general hospitals of the army, and that the physicians and surgeons of the hospitals of New York had undertaken to educate and drill these women in a most thorough and laborious manner, and asked that the War Department consent to receive these nurses on wages in such numbers as the exigencies of the war might require.

May 22, 1861, the Acting Surgeon General of the Army recommended that this request be favorably acted upon by the Secretary of War, and suggested the names of persons to be appointed upon the commission.

May 23, 1861, a draft of the powers asked from the government for the commissioners was presented to the Secretary of War. June 9, 1861, the Secretary of War appointed nine persons, including the Acting Surgeon General, with such persons as they might choose to associate with them, “as a commission of inquiry and advice in respect to the sanitary interests of the United States forces,” to act without remuneration, and to exist as a commission until the Secretary of War should otherwise direct, or the commission be dissolved by its own motion.

June 13, 1861, this appointment was endorsed: “I approve the above.—A. LINCOLN.”

The consent of the government to the establishment of this commission was very reluctant, and President Lincoln

said he feared it might be the "fifth wheel of the coach;" but within twenty-four hours from the time it was authorized it was actively at work. Its membership was increased first to twenty-one, and subsequently to over five hundred.

It was popularly known as "The Sanitary Commission;" and it is safe to say that without the assistance of the soldiers' aid societies, organized and sustained by the women, it would have been a practical failure.

One of its first acts was to make the Women's Central Association of Relief at New York an auxiliary branch of the commission, and from time to time the soldiers' aid societies, formed in Chicago, Cincinnati, Buffalo, Cleveland, Louisville, Pittsburg, Boston, Philadelphia, and other cities, were made branches of the commission. Each of these had its own auxiliary societies, comprising in all over ten thousand active aid societies. It was from these aid societies, organized and supported by women, that the commission mainly obtained its supplies and the contributions by which it was maintained.

Time permits only a slight allusion to a few of the more important of these aid societies. The Women's Central Association of Relief in New York, and the Brooklyn Relief Association, with an associate membership of one hundred and thirty-eight other smaller societies, collected supplies and contributions to the amount of several million dollars, and so admirable was its organization that its entire expenses for the four years were a little over \$61,000.

The Soldiers' Aid Society of Northern Ohio, organized and maintained entirely by women, had one hundred and twenty auxiliary societies, collected and disbursed and distributed in money and in stores \$1,133,405.09, and at the close of the war it assumed the support of the Ohio State Soldiers' Home, making to it a gift of \$5,000 before the Legislature made any appropriation.

The Ladies' Union Aid Society of St. Louis, with but a few auxiliary societies, contributed nearly \$200,000 in money, and more than a million dollars in supplies.

The New England Women's Auxiliary Society, having for its field only Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Massachusetts, had in these four states alone one thousand and fifty auxiliary societies, and collected and disbursed nearly \$315,000 in money and \$1,200,000 in stores and supplies.

The Chicago branch had about a thousand aid societies, the Cincinnati and Cleveland branches about five hundred, and the Cleveland branch alone handled a business amounting to more than a million dollars, the books of which were well kept by a young woman.

In the then sparsely populated state of Wisconsin, the Soldiers' Aid Society contributed over \$200,000, and maintained separate departments for forwarding supplies, for getting state pay for families of soldiers, for securing pensions and arrears of pay, for obtaining employment for wives and mothers of soldiers, for securing work for partially disabled soldiers, and for helping those permanently disabled in service.

All this was done by women, and the variety and extent of the services performed by this society are only an example of the work of all.

It is estimated that the amount of money and of supplies collected and disbursed by these organizations of women during the four years of the war amounted to nearly \$54,000,000, and this vast work was done in the most efficient and business-like manner.

In 1868 the Rev. Dr. Bellows, president of the Sanitary Commission, speaking of their work, said :

"The distinctive features in woman's work in this war were magnitude, system, thorough co-operativeness with the other sex, distinctness of purpose, *business-like thoroughness in details*, sturdy persistency to the close. There was no more general rising among the men than among the women. Men did not take to the musket more commonly than women took to the needle, and for every assembly where men met for mutual excitation in the service of the country, there was some corresponding gathering of women to stir each others' hearts and fingers in the same sacred cause. All the caucuses and political assemblies of every kind, in which speech and song quickened the blood of the men.

did not exceed in number the meetings, in the form of soldiers' aid societies and sewing circles which the women held, where they talked over the national cause, and fed the fires of sacrifice in each others' hearts. . . . It is impossible to overestimate the amount of consecrated work done by the loyal women of the North for the army. . . . And their work was as systematic as it was universal. Nothing that men commonly think peculiar to their own methods was wanting in the plans of the women. They acknowledged and answered, endorsed and filed their letters; they sorted their stores, and kept an accurate account of stock; they had their books and reports kept in the most approved forms; they balanced their cash accounts with the most painstaking precision; they exacted of each other regularity of attendance, and punctiliousness of official etiquette. They showed, in short, a *perfect aptitude for business*, and proved by their own experience that men can devise nothing too precise, too systematic, or too complicated for women to understand, apply, and improve upon, where there is any sufficient motive for it. . . . No words are adequate to describe the systematic, persistent faithfulness of the women who organized and led the branches of the United States Sanitary Commission. Their volunteer labor had all the regularity of paid service, and a heartiness and earnestness which no paid services can ever have. Hundreds of women evinced talents there which, in other spheres and in the other sex, would have made them merchant princes, or great administrators of public affairs. . . . They engaged in a correspondence of the most trying kind, requiring the utmost address to meet the searching questions asked by intelligent jealousy, and to answer the rigorous objections raised by impatience or ignorance in the rural districts. They became instructors of whole townships in the methods of government business, the constitution of the Commissary and Quartermaster's Departments, and the forms of the Medical Bureau."

It should be remembered that the vast sum thus collected and disbursed came in countless contributions, and mainly in small sums from persons of limited means.

In city, town, and hamlet, and in the lonely farmhouses on prairie or on mountain side, the willing fingers of millions of toiling women daily added something to their heavy labors to minister to the necessities of the Union soldiers. Economies were practiced, sacrifices were made, privations were endured in countless humble homes, that each might give something to the Union cause.

The public did not at first properly respond to the appeals of the commission for aid. Up to September 1, 1861, it had received in contributions only \$13,630.03.

In November, 1861, it had hardly sufficient funds to meet its obligations. In December it received only \$19,682.25, ten thousand dollars of which came from New England, and mainly from Boston.

In February, 1862, its members believed that its work must be abandoned for lack of money; but it struggled on until in September, 1862, after it had lived from hand to mouth for fifteen months, never being able to count with confidence on sixty days of solvency, its total receipts having been only a little over \$150,000, the contributions from the women's aid societies began to largely increase.

From that time on, however, the calls upon the commission so increased that during the last six months of 1863 its disbursements were twice as much as its receipts, and it entered on the year 1864 with a balance of less than it had expended during the preceding month of December. It again appealed to the public for funds, saying that if its work was not to be abandoned it must have not less than \$250,000 before February 1, 1864. Then it was that the women by their celebrated "sanitary fairs," saved the commission and its work.

The women of Chicago originated and conducted the first of these fairs. Starting out to raise \$25,000, they raised and sent to the commission more than \$75,000.

The women of Cincinnati at once followed with a fair by which they proposed to raise \$250,000, and they did it.

Similar fairs were held in nearly all the other large cities of the North. The sanitary fair of Boston contributed \$50,000 in January, 1864, and other and larger contributions followed. Before the summer of 1864, the commission had received more than \$1,300,000 from the fairs of Brooklyn and New York alone; more than a million more came from the fair in Philadelphia. The result was that, on June 1, 1864, the commission had a cash balance of over a million dollars with which to continue its great work. It is estimated that nearly five million dollars was raised by these fairs in a little more than twelve months.

The conduct of the women who created them was characterized by the official head of the commission in words which I quote :

"The prodigious exertions put forth by the women who founded and conducted the great fairs for the soldiers in a dozen principal cities and in many large towns, were only surpassed by the *planning, skill and administrative ability* which accompanied their progress, and the marvellous success in which they terminated. Months of anxious preparation, where hundreds of committees vied with each other in long-headed schemes for securing the co-operation of the several trades or industries allotted to each, and during which laborious days and anxious nights were unintermittingly given to the wearing work, were followed by weeks of personal service in the fairs themselves. . . .

"The chief women who inaugurated the several great fairs at New York, Philadelphia, Brooklyn, Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati, St. Louis, and administered these vast movements, *were not behind the ablest men in the land in their grasp and comprehension of the business in hand*, and often in comparison with the men associated with them exhibited a finer scope, a better spirit, and a more victorious faith. But for the women of America, the great fairs would never have been born, or would have died ignominiously in their gilded cradles. Their vastness of conception and their splendid results are to be set as an everlasting crown on women's capacity for large and money-yielding enterprises."

CONSTRUCTION, MANAGEMENT, AND WORKINGS OF AN IDEAL INSTITUTION FOR CHILDREN.*

BY MR. LYMAN P. ALDEN, SUPERINTENDENT OF THE ROSE
ORPHANS' HOME, TERRE HAUTE, IND.

In the twenty minutes allowed for the discussion of the subject assigned me, only a few general hints can be given.

Preliminary to the construction of an ideal institution the system and the location must be decided upon. First of all, the general plan of the institution must be carefully considered. Shall it be run on the congregate or on the cottage plan? Shall there be one large four or five story building

* Read at the National Conference of Charities and Correction, Nashville, Tenn., May, 1894.

where all the children are gathered, or shall a number of small buildings be constructed, each having a little family of from twenty to thirty children only?

While excellent results have been obtained from the congregate system, and while, in large crowded cities, where land is high priced no other system is practicable, nevertheless the so called cottage system is the one for an ideal institution for the following reasons: The buildings can be more cheaply constructed; it is not necessary in starting the institution to be at the great expense of providing room for the prospective growth of coming years; additional cottages can be added from time to time without tearing anything down or marring the symmetry of the entire group; cottages are easier to ventilate and flood with sunlight; in case of fire the children can be more easily rescued, and if the buildings are properly separated the destruction of property would be less; but, principally, because the cottage system makes it easier to classify the children and is more like that of the ordinary family, affording better opportunities for developing the moral character.

The next thing to be considered is the location. It is desirable that it should be placed within reasonable distance of a railway station, especially where the fuel is to be coal. If near a city of some importance it will be easier to secure supplies and get repairing done, and better help can be secured for an institution so near such a city that the employees can attend the churches of their choice, and occasionally some lecture, concert or other first-class entertainment.

The site should be on ground rolling enough to secure good drainage, and yet not so rolling that heavy rain storms will wash the walks, drives, and lawns. One hundred acres of rich land are none too many for gardens, orchards, pastures, meadows, play-grounds, and lawns. The ideal institution will also own, within reasonable distance, from twenty to fifty acres of native forest trees where the children can go to romp with their teachers at least once each

week, from early spring, when the first wild flowers appear, till late in the fall when the nuts are all gathered. Nothing gives children more pure pleasure or tends more to sweeten their natures and make them good.

The site should also be chosen with reference to an abundance of pure water and facilities for disposing of sewage at a moderate cost. These are frequently among the last things thought of, and the problems of securing these have often been solved only after years of thought, anxiety, and at an expense much greater than the original value of the site.

If the soil where the buildings, lawns, and play-grounds are to be located is of clay, it should be thoroughly under-drained, and the tile around the buildings should be laid at a depth of at least one foot lower than the foundation walls. Good drainage is absolutely necessary for securing good health. Much of the diphtheria and scarlet fever, with which some institutions are so frequently afflicted, is due to bad sewers, imperfect drainage, and damp walls.

A catch basin should receive the branch sewage from each building which, after being screened and trapped, should pass into the main sewer. This should have a ventilating pipe just below the catch basin connected with the boiler-room smoke-stack, to relieve the pressure of gas in the sewer and consume it. Then each branch sewer should have a ventilating pipe just inside the basement walls, running up through the building and out through the roof. Grease traps should be placed near the kitchen and sinks to prevent the stoppage of the sewer pipes.

While there should be water closets in each cottage for the children's use, in case of sickness or in the night time, there should also be outside closets, perhaps modeled after the Edinburg plan, with cisterns or vaults underneath filled with water so arranged that some employee can empty and fill them again in a few minutes, several times each week. They are simple, inexpensive, and no unpleasant odors are connected with their operations. Gas pipes and water pipes should be laid to the horse and cow barns and yards.

The buildings of the ideal institution will never be arranged in a straight line like those of a cotton factory, but be grouped picturesquely; possibly in a crescent form with the administration building forming the centre of the crescent and the other buildings receding to the right and left, with the engine-house in the rear, and so be easily connected to each cottage with steam and water pipes. Great attention should be given to protecting these pipes from the damp ground which would soon rust them out, besides causing a great loss of heat. There are simple and inexpensive ways of doing this.

The engine and boiler house should be entirely detached from the administration building. The coal house should be connected with the boiler house with a railway and cars to convey the coal to the furnaces. If properly constructed the laundry can be placed in the story over the boiler rooms or adjoining, without any danger of annoyance from smoke and soot. There are many advantages in having it there. This is the most economical plan for receiving steam for power and drying the clothing, and the large smoke-stack furnishes the best of ventilating flues for carrying off the steam, unpleasant odors and heat.

The hospital and barns should as a general thing be located at a suitable distance to the north and north-east of the other buildings, from which direction the winds rarely blow in most parts of this country. The cottages should not be nearer than sixty feet apart, and each cottage should have a separate play-ground, so that the children can ordinarily be kept apart and be brought directly under the influence and control of its particular manager; though it would be well also to have a common play-ground for special occasions and purposes.

The ideal institution will have from six to ten cottages and will make provision for from 200 to 300 children. More than the highest number can not be brought under the personal notice of the superintendent. On the other hand, while a very small institution may have some advantages, the ex-

pense *per capita* would ordinarily prevent the employing of the best talent in the management, the teaching of the trades, the introduction of kindergartens, the grading of the pupils in the schools, and the purchase of stereopticons and other apparatus for amusement or instruction. Besides there is a greater stimulus in an institution of two or three hundred pupils, both to pupils and teachers, as there is a greater variety of talent.

The materials for the construction of the buildings should, as far as possible, be of stone and brick. Wooden porches and steps soon rot, need painting often, and in the long run are dear.

The architecture need not be elaborate, but this does not imply that the buildings should be erected without any regard to taste. They should be solid, durable and perfectly adapted to their several purposes. No wood work should be placed in a building permanently until it has been plastered and thoroughly dried. Then only thoroughly kiln-dried lumber should be used. Pine floors are good enough for all carpeted or covered rooms. For uncovered floors oak, sawed one and one-fourth by four inches, with the surface, grooves and tongues saturated with boiling hot linseed oil, will last many years, with an occasional coat of hot oil. Tiles are best for the kitchens and basements.

The walls of the buildings should be hollow, or furred and lathed for the sake of dryness and warmth. For the children's apartments I have found that hollow walls are better, as, where the plastering is done on laths, it is more easily knocked off than from solid brick walls.

In the children's rooms, the walls should be wainscoted for a height of three feet from the floor, with wood or a thick coat of Portland cement moulded into such ornamental forms as may be desirable. Where Portland cement is used there are no cracks around the bases for roaches to hide in.

The store rooms should be abundant and convenient and the kitchen large, airy and thoroughly ventilated. Gas or electricity will be used of course for lighting, and steam, or

electricmats for heating. In all public rooms, an abundant current of warm, pure air taken from without will flow in to replace the foul air that will be taken out from the lower part of the room in suitable ventilating ducts.

But the most perfectly planned and constructed institution will prove a failure unless well managed. The success of any institution will depend more upon the Superintendent at the head of it than upon anything else. Hence, the Board of Control should be very careful to select the right man or woman for the position, and when such a person is found, the greatest degree of liberty possible, under certain general limitations, should be allowed him in carrying on the work. The Superintendent should be permitted to select his own assistants, with the approval of the Board, and the power of dismissal should rest with him, as he is held responsible for general results. He stands where he can see the daily and hourly needs of the institution as no member of the Board can.

But with such responsibilities committed to him, the ideal Superintendent should be just, wise, prudent, honest, humane, kind-hearted, of unblemished reputation, acquainted with human nature, and a good reader of character. He will be a lover of children—one who having gone through the experiences of the average child still retains a vivid recollection of his childhood. Patience and gentleness united with great firmness are indispensable qualifications, and if there is a vein of humor in his composition, all the better.

He should be great in *little* things, looking carefully after the thousand details necessary to the smooth and successful operations of an institution. The wider his experience and the more he knows of practical things the better. A knowledge of children's diseases, of simple remedies, of the general laws of health, steam heating, music, schools, etc., will all come in play and greatly add to his value.

It is desirable also, that he should know something of mental physiology, nervous diseases, insanity, and the laws of heredity; for a knowledge of these things will enable him

to deal more wisely with so-called incorrigible children and to be more patient with them.

It is not necessary to say that the assistants and employees selected by such a Superintendent will be selected solely with reference to their supposed fitness for the positions, and the good influence they will exert on the children, and that when it is found that they are unfitted for this work, they will be dismissed. But knowing how impossible it is to find absolute perfection in any one, he will wisely be satisfied if he can secure eighty or ninety points out of the one hundred that the ideal worker should possess. He will aim to patiently instruct and bear with inexperienced workers until they have had ample time to learn their duties, and those who fail will be dismissed as gently and kindly as is possible.

When the right persons are found for assistants, they too, will be allowed the largest amount of freedom possible, consistent with the general regulations and aims of the institution, in carrying on and improving their work. If the general results are satisfactory it is immaterial just how they are secured. No two persons can work easily in precisely the same groove. It will be the aim of the Superintendent to make their lives at the institution in various ways as happy as possible. In this way good workers may be retained for years and the evils resulting from frequent changes be avoided.

In such an institution a kindly happy spirit should prevail. There should be no quarrels or jealousies between the employees. Their relations to each other and the children would be friendly and loving, and not unlike those of a well-ordered family. The time of the children would be properly divided between work, study, and play, just as it is in the family. Ordinarily it is better for the institution to maintain its own schools and teachers. The studies taught will be those of the average public school, but much of the red tape of the city schools may be omitted in order to give the children the greatest amount of practical information in

the shortest space of time before they go out into homes. Many things outside of the books can be taught orally. Of course there must be a kindergarten in every ideal institution.

The work performed by the children should be varied and such as is adapted to their years. Every child over seven years old, will be trained to perform some simple service. Children under thirteen years old are too young for trades, but they can be taught to sew, mend, wash and wipe dishes, make beds, sweep, scrub, prepare vegetables, iron, wash clothes, work in the garden or on the farm, milk, take care of stock, etc. Many of these things, such as bed making, washing dishes, ironing, etc., can be and are done just as well by boys as girls. The employment must be frequently changed or they tire of it. Any useful labor that trains the hand and eye carefully and aids in forming the habit of industry, is educational, even though later in life the children will never be called upon again to do the same work. The chief thing is to form industrious habits. Older children can be taught trades of various kinds.

Amusements and recreations will have an important place in a child's institution, and they need not be of an expensive character. Children manage to extract a vast amount of pleasure from very simple things. A pile of sand, a lot of small wooden bricks, a little paper, some strings, paste and lumber for building kites and stilts, and other simple things that they can often make for themselves, give them more pleasure sometimes than the most expensive toys that can be purchased, for these are the products of their own ingenuity and skill. Of course there will be pic-nics, romps in the woods, gatherings of wild flowers and nuts, candy pulls, occasional cottage parties to which children of another cottage are invited. All the holidays and the Sabbath will be faithfully and enthusiastically observed with suitable exercises to inculcate patriotism, a love for nature, and a reverence for God and religion. Occasional concerts, magic lantern exhibitions, lectures and other entertainments should break the monotony of institutional life.

In the ideal institution order and cleanliness will reign, after nine o'clock each morning, from basement to garret, every day in the year, and the whole institution will be ready for inspection. There will be no periodical season of house cleaning, but every nook and corner requiring attention, will receive it daily.

Now spend a day with me in such an institution where all these things are in successful operation. A sweet-toned bell awakens the children at five o'clock in the summer and at half past five in the winter. Early rising is necessary in institutions where all the work is done by the children in order that they may be ready for school at nine o'clock. Besides when they go to country homes they will often be required to raise still earlier, and it will be all the easier for them if they have already acquired the habit of early rising. "Is it not hard on them?" some tender mother asks. Not a bit. They retire very early in the evening, and at the first tap of the bell, all of the smaller children, especially, spring to the floor as if glad that it is time to rise. The older ones are a little more dilatory as they sit up later evenings. Until breakfast time, which may be served at 6.30 o'clock in summer and half an hour later in the winter, the children are busy dressing, washing faces and hands, putting the cottage in order, making beds, assisting the farmer or the cook, or helping in other departments. The meals are prepared in one common kitchen and served in the associated dining room, each cottage being seated by itself under the supervision of the cottage matron. The meals are simple but well cooked and ample for all purposes of health and growth, and there is considerable variety during the entire week. Rolled oat meal, rolled hominy, California breakfast food, rice, fried mush, sugar, milk, bread, gravy, meat, fruit, vegetables, etc., form the basis of the diet, though many other dishes are provided from time to time.

From nine o'clock until fifteen minutes before twelve the children are in school. Dinner is served at twelve o'clock and the intervening time is spent in washing hands and faces

and preparing for it. After dinner the dining-room and other rooms must be put in order again, but some time is found for play before the two o'clock bell rings for school. School closes at four, and the children spend the time between that hour and tea, which is served at 5.30 o'clock, in work and play. In the summer a long time is allowed after supper for play. For stormy weather there is provided a large play-room in the attic of each cottage and possibly there is also a common gymnasium.

As the shades of the evening begin to gather you will hear through the open windows of each cottage, if it be the summer season, the voices of the children singing in full chorus, and if you will step in you will see them in their bright cheery sitting-rooms gathered around their cottage mother. It is the hour for evening worship. A song is sung. Then the Sunday school lesson for the following Sunday is gone over and the Golden Text and a few other verses are memorized, more songs selected by the children are sung; possibly the Apostle's Creed is repeated, when all kneel and join in repeating a simple prayer. Each cottage has a different exercise varying as the ingenuity of the manager may suggest. At this hour, too, the deportment roll is called, the events of the day are familiarly and kindly talked over, and many a child is inspired at this time to live a better life in the future. It is usually a happy half hour when the cottage mother and her children are drawn closely together. After another tender evening song, the smaller children—the little white robed squad—say their "good night!" and are off to bed. The older children sit up longer to read, study or play games, but by nine o'clock all are in bed, locked fast in the arms of Morpheus. By ten o'clock, with the exception of a few hall lights dimly burning, darkness and silence brood over the entire place, which so lately echoed with pattering feet and was the scene of such intense activity.

The results of the work in an ideal institution, making allowance for the imperfect physical, mental, and moral condition of the children to be dealt with, could not be other

than satisfactory. The health record would be remarkable and greatly superior to that of the average families of the land. In one institution that I personally know of, made up of three hundred children, ranging from three to fourteen years in age, many of them inheriting feeble constitutions and physical ailments, there was not a death in two years. In another numbering about one hundred children of the same ages, there were but three deaths in ten years, and these were of a chronic nature. The doctor's bill for one entire year was only \$16.00. In the adjoining city diphtheria and scarlet fever have prevailed every year, there being over five hundred cases of diphtheria in one season, yet in that institution there has never been a case of this disease, and only six light cases of scarlet fever, which disease was introduced by a child admitted from the city before she had fully recovered from it.

In such an institution good habits and manners will be formed. The children will be taught to be polite, to knock at the door, and take off their hats before entering a house, which many country boys never do; to say "thanks" for a favor, to bathe regularly, to brush their teeth, to be civil to others, to behave in church, to respect property, to rise early, and to be generally useful. Boys who have been accustomed to smoke, chew, swear, and fight, will of necessity leave off such habits while in the institution. If after they go out to country homes they fall from grace, lose their good manners and return to their old habits, as unfortunately some of them do, it will not be the fault of the institution, but of their subsequent environment and training. Of course there is a considerable percentage of the children who will remain incorrigible under the best influences that can be brought to bear upon them by institutions or families.

In such an institution the children will be taught to love the beautiful in nature and art, to be patriotic, to revere the Sabbath, love God, be obedient, and obey the laws of their country. Not a few of them become respected members of some Christian church before leaving the institution.

Necessity compels all institutions, with the exception of a few that are heavily endowed, like Girard College and the Washburn Memorial Home at Minneapolis, to send their children out into families as soon as good places can be found for them; and when really good homes can be found, this seems the sensible thing to do. But if, for any reason, such homes can not be found, or if it is thought best, in some special cases on account of some peculiarities, talents, or ambitions of the child, to retain it in the institution until fitted to take care of itself, there will be no more danger of its becoming "institutionized" in the ideal institution than of a child being *familyized* in an ideal family. Why should there be?

I have never, in nineteen years experience, seen a child spoiled for the work of life in such a training. But I have known quite a number who, at the age from fifteen to seventeen, went out into the world single-handed and have ever since successfully taken care of themselves, and sometimes their relatives. President Fetterolf, of Girard College, which institution no longer indentures its boys, but keeps them until able to provide for themselves, reports that over ninety per cent of his boys do well in life. This is as high a per cent. as the most enthusiastic advocate of the placing-out system would dare claim.

Superintendent F. D. Clark, of the Michigan School for the Deaf, recently stated that while there are 40,000 deaf and dumb people in the United States, most of whom received their entire education and training in institutions, yet only *four* of them are now in prison. This he attributes to the careful training in morals and handicrafts which they have received in the various institutions established for this class.

Was there ever such an ideal institution? Probably not. Many of them are coming up closely to this ideal. But in the best institution there is great room for improvement and "Excelsior" should be inscribed on the banner of each.

INTELLIGENCE.

LEND A HAND CLUBS.

OFFICE NOTES.

Early in August the secretary was called to Eliot, in Maine, to address the Greenacre visitors on Lend a Hand work. The audience was large and much interested.

Greenacre Inn is at the mouth of the Piscataqua river, in a most beautiful location. A large tent stands near the Inn, in which the lectures are given, and over the slope of the hill, on the very bank of the river, is Camp Sunrise, a collection of about twenty tents, which are occupied by visitors. Over all floats the flag of "Peace," and it is, indeed, a quiet, harmonious atmosphere. Many are the opinions, but universal is the love that pervades the place. The work of Greenacre was thought out by one of our own number, Miss Farmer of Eliot, who has the enthusiastic help of those who lend a hand, whether they bear the name or not.

Dr. Hale also addressed the people at Greenacre on the subject of Socialism. He was received with enthusiasm, and greatly enjoyed his visit there.

The summer outings for men still go on from the Central Office. Here is a letter in answer to an appeal for money:

"O. A. is to have \$5.00 of this, and X. Y. \$5.00, unless there has been enough, and then somebody else may have it. It is the proceeds of

1 drive to Big Boar's Head (not taken).....	\$ 5.00
1 week's supply of candy (done without).....	2.00
1 week's cigars (not smoked).....	3.00
	<hr/>
	\$10.00

THREE GIRLS AND TWO BOYS."

LEND A HAND office has not been without visitors this summer. They have come from various far-away places. Many had heard of Lend a Hand Clubs, but knew nothing of their work. Others came to ask about Noon-day Rest, with a view to establishing just such a practical institution in their own cities. The Young Travellers' Aid Society, of which the secretary of LEND A HAND spoke at the annual meeting, has attracted attention, and at least one has been started on the same plan in a distant city.

Chicago copied the Noon-day Rest of Boston and has been most successful. The "Rest girls" have lent a hand and opened a room near them where a bowl of soup and a bit of bread can be supplied to the little cash girls for three cents. The LEND A HAND office must take lessons of the Chicago Noon-day Rest.

Clubs are requested to remember that Miss Jennie Dean will be in Boston during the month of October. She will speak on the needs of the Manassas School in Virginia.

Clubs are earnestly requested to assist in forming engagements for her. Her time here is short and it is desirable that every moment should be filled.

Lend a Hand Clubs are represented on the Board of Di-

rectors by the Central Secretary. The Central Office, therefore, calls upon every Club in the vicinity to do its part.

Attention is also called to the Quarterly Conference of Lend a Hand Clubs at Worcester, Mass., October 3rd, from 11 A. M. to 3 P. M. Visitors will take their own lunches and the Lend a Hand Club will furnish coffee and tea. The meeting will be held in Unity Church.

CLUB REPORTS.

BOSTON, MASS.

The "Union Associates" have accomplished as large an amount of work the past year as any year since the Club was organized five years ago, and although the meetings were not carried on as regularly during the winter months as usual, on account of sickness, the members were not idle, and our annual report shows that the interest of the members has never flagged. They have maintained a steady interest in the Home for Aged Couples, having, during the past winter, furnished the room in the new building which they have had in anticipation since the commencement of the building. It is handsomely and substantially furnished with everything for the comfort of the old people, and is now occupied by a most delightful couple whom we shall enjoy visiting and making as happy as possible.

Four hundred and fourteen new and cast-off garments have been given to deserving families, and a large box and barrel of reading matter sent to the Lend a Hand Book Mission at the South. Letters of graceful thanks have been received for them, showing how much joy and gladness can be carried to the hearts of many by a very little thought and care of a few earnest workers.

Books and magazines have been sent to elevator boys, to the North End reading room, and numerous other places. Thirty-two dollars and fifty-three cents in money have been

given in small sums to relieve the pressing needs of several families, helping to pay rent, etc.

Twelve Thanksgiving dinners were given out, also many gifts at Christmas. By the efforts of several members of the Club young men and girls have obtained good situations, which is the best charity of all, helping others to help themselves, making them independent and self-respecting. One of the members has established a flower mission of her own, having a fine garden. She distributes flowers once a week to the shop girls in the city. It is such a joy to see their faces light up and hear them exclaim, "How sweet!" "How lovely!" "I do love flowers so, and I don't have any at home." Oh! the joy of giving, be it ever so little. These are but few of the many kind deeds done by our little Club, ever looking upward and forward and lending a hand.

NEW ORLEANS, LA.

We have, for some time, desired to send a small contribution to our friends of the Clubs, to let them know how our Club is progressing, but owing to the numerous duties of each and every officer, it has been impossible to get the proper items.

At any rate, we will let our central body know how much we have widened in numbers and thought, since we first enrolled our members.

This circle of young enthusiasts held its last regular meeting on Sunday, June 3, 1894.

There was observed, during this meeting, more system and order while enacting the business of the Club than formerly. At a previous meeting it was decided to purchase "Cushing's Manual" and study the rules to such an extent that we should become familiar with the proceedings of organized meetings on more important subjects. When we are older and join wiser and larger associations, we shall be able to conduct ourselves in a manner consistent with the dignity of the occasion.

On June 9th, 1893, we enrolled twenty-two members upon our Club Certificate.

We felt very small and poor, so did not send an initiation fee to our Mother Club. But now we are a body of thirty-two staunch young men and women, and our average attendance in 1893 and 1894 was eighteen.

We are able to subscribe for both paper and magazine and central organization, besides having given a check of fifty dollars to assist in making up the hundred raised by the Alliance for the repairing of the church organ.

The melodeon of the Sunday school has also been repaired to an extent of ten dollars paid by the Lend a Hand Club. We have at present a total of \$12.05. Of that \$3.25 is the nucleus of a library fund, to supply books for the Young Men's Saturday Night Club. The library is sadly in need of books, and we are doing all we can to collect them this summer, and to fix up a reading-room for the long Saturday nights of next year.

The pulpit fund of fifty dollars is still in bank and we are simply waiting until our new church materializes and then our forces will be put together to beautify the pulpit and reading-desk. All the young men of the Lend a Hand have joined the "Liberal League." They lend a hand wherever they see it will help, and are earnest in all their undertakings. The "young peoples" Sunday evening meetings, which have been successful in a great measure, were under the control of the Lend a Hand.

A "Debating Society" has also been organized by the young men, with the young women as honorary members.

It meets every Wednesday evening in the Lend a Hand Club room, and is carried on in a most methodical and interesting manner, both to the members and visitors.

We are very sanguine of success and improvement for ourselves, and also hope to do much more for others than we have done. I could count a score of lovely little deeds and works done by each member in this past year; each one

trying in his or her way to carry out to the letter the mottoes we all love so well.

With such a leader and advisor as we now have we can not but succeed, both in our spiritual and temporal efforts.

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PROTECTION OF ITALIAN WORKMEN.

The Association for the Protection of Italian Workmen of Boston, has taken up work in earnest where the field is large.

It is stated that there are 1,500 Italian residents in Boston. They are for the most part ignorant, and helpless because they are so ignorant, ready to be duped by any one of their number who, by reason of a little more education, has become more prosperous in the world. The abuses practised by the *padrones* have been hidden from the public eye, for no complaints have been made. The Italian quarter is thickly settled and but few can speak English. They do not read our papers, they do not converse with English-speaking people. They put their trust in the *padrones*, and they dare not speak even if they feel that they are wronged.

The Association has been formed to correct these abuses. Committees on employment, banking, legal assistance, information, education, and finance have been appointed. An employment office in charge of a competent American with a responsible Italian assistant, has been opened. Banking business is to be carried on by an agency connected with a well-known, reliable bank. Cases of injustice will be investigated and redress sought.

The Committee on information have a difficult task before them. The *padrones* are using their influence to extend untruthful statements, and it will be a long time before the ignorant men and women recognize their true friends. But the Committee will keep before the public, both American and Italian, the work the Association seeks to do, and in every way they will try to gain the confidence of the Italians.

The Committee on Education will endeavor to instruct Italians in the English language and in the essentials of good citizenship.

For further particulars, address Samuel F. Hubbard, Secretary, 20 Parmenter Street, Boston.

PUBLISHER'S DEPARTMENT.

EDWARD E. HALE, D. D. - - - - - Editor in Chief.
JOHN STILMAN SMITH, - - - - - Business Manager.

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THE September *Arena* is filled with articles of interest. The number opens with a paper by Rev. Minot J. Savage on "The Religion of Walt Whitman's Poems," which will lead many to open their Whitman in a new spirit. Judge Walter Clark, Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of North Carolina, writes in favor of the Election of Senators by Popular Vote, and the limiting of the power and patronage of the President. He is, however, not in favor of electing the President in the same way, as he believes that would involve the perils of revolution with certain popular and ambitious men at the head of a presidential campaign. Charles S. Smart, an ex-State Superintendent of the Public Schools of Ohio, makes a very damaging criticism of our school system in a paper called Public Schools for the Privileged Few. It should lead to salutary discussion and ventilation.

A VERY interesting and unique little paper appears in the September *Arena*. It is, "An Astrological Forecast of the Administration of President Cleveland," by Julius Erickson. It was made at the moment of Mr. Cleveland's inauguration, March 4, 1893, and a copy of it was deposited with the Librarian of Congress at the time, as an historical record. In the light of recent and current events this strange document should be read with curiosity and interest in Washington, if nowhere else. It predicted a bad time for the Cleveland administration, and disappointment for Cleveland, and it begins to look as if such things were not out of the range of political possibilities.

Lippincott's Magazine

For September, 1894.

THE complete novel in the September number of LIPPINCOTT'S is "Captain Molly," by Mary A. Denison, and deals with the philanthropic work of the Salvation Army. The heroine, a banker's daughter, leaves a luxurious home to dwell for a time in Paradise Flats, and tries, not without success, to alleviate the miseries of her neighbors there: the hero follows her in disguise, and the tale comes to an orthodox end.

The three short stories are of unusual merit. "Josef Helmuth's Goetz," by Frederick R. Burton, is a weird tale of a too imaginative musician and of a violin which imprisoned a human soul. Will N. Harben does his very best work in "The Sale of Uncle Rastus," a slave whose devotion to his master assumed a unique form. "On Second Thoughts," by Lalage D. Morgan, is a love-story with an uncommon ending, for the young lady's heart was finally controlled by her head.

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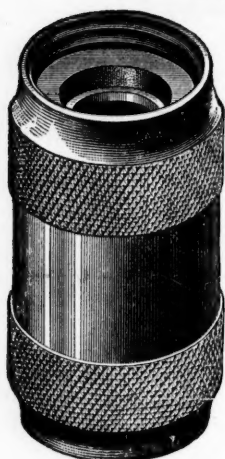
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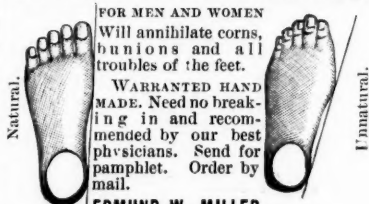
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